DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 283 948 CE 047 523

AUTHOR Vitolo, Richard K., Ed.
TITLE A Golden Gate to Opportunity. The Correctional Education Association International Conference (42nd, San Francisco, California, July 26-29, 1987). Leadership Series in Correctional Education.
INSTITUTION Los Angeles County Office of Education, Downey, CA.
PUB DATE 87
NOTE 102p.; Document contains small print.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Basic Skills; *Correctional Education; *Correctional Rehabilitation; Delinquency; Microcomputers; Needs Assessment; *Outcomes of Education; Peer Teaching; Postsecondary Education; Prisoners; Program Effectiveness; Reading Instruction; Science Instruction; Secondary Education; Self Care Skills; *Skill Development; Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

This document contains 10 papers presented at a symposium on corrections education. The proceedings are organized in two parts; the first part contains six research and program reports, and the second part contains four papers on various instructional strategies. The papers in Part I are as follows: "The Politics of Rehabilitation: A Study of Legislative Ideology" (Mark S. Hamm); "University Prison Education in British Columbia Combining Academic and Living Skills for Personal Growth" (Stephen Duguid); "State of Wisconsin Division of Corrections Bureau of Juvenile Services Post-Secondary Education Pilot Program" (James R. Wickman); "Post-Secondary Correctional Education: An Evaluation of Parolee Performance" (Jerry Holoway and Paul Moke); "Needs Assessment in Correctional Education" (Raymond Bell and Coleen McDonnell); and "The Relationships of WAIS-R [Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised] Scores, Social Variables and Educational Preparation to Reading Achievement in Prison Population" (Scott Coleman Greenwood and Raymond Bell). The papers in Part II include "Computer Labs in Ohio's Correctional Prerelease Program" (Norman Rose and Kurt Williams); "Ethical Considerations in Land Use: An Exploration of Values in the Prison Lab Science Classroom" (James A. Brey); "Peer Tutoring: It Makes a Difference in a Juvenile Detention Center School" (Betty W. Farrar); and "A Five Year Comparison of APL [Adult Performance Level] Lifescoping Skills Test Results at Lebanon Correctional Institution" (Donald DeBald). Some papers are preceded by abstracts, and the editor of the proceedings provides a short commentary on and summary of the conference. (KC)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED283948

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Journal of the Correctional Education Association 42nd International Conference

A Golden Gate to Opportunity

CE041523

Leadership Series in Correctional Education

Edited by Richard K. Vitolo

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

R Vitolo

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

The Correctional Education Association
42nd International Conference

A Golden Gate to Opportunity

Edited by:

Richard K. Vitolo

Correctional Education Officers

Randy Shipe, president
Jerry McGlone, president elect
Ernestine Schnuelle, vice president
Gayle Gassner, secretary
Jack Littlefield, treasurer
Bruce Wolford, past president

This publication was made possible by the Division of Juvenile Court and Community Schools, Los Angeles County Office of Education.

Copyright: 1987, Los Angeles County Office of Education

Los Angeles County
Office of Education

9300 East Imperial Highway, Downey, California 90242-2890

Dr. Stuart E. Gothold, superintendent
Dr. H. Jennifer Hartman, assistant superintendent
Special Education and Juvenile Court and Community Schools

Daniel L. Towler, president
Mary E. Lewis, vice president
Frank J. Alderete
Ruth Bloom
Lawrence J. Kaplan, D.D.S., F.I.C.D.
Earl V. Pullias
Michaelene D. Wagner

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents iii
Acknowledgements 1
Editor's Notes 3

PART I: RESEARCH AND PROGRAM REPORTS

The Politics Of Rehabilitation: A Study Of Legislative Ideology
Mark S. Hamm 7
University Prison Education In British Columbia Combining Academic And Living Skills For Personal Growth
Stephen Duguid 18
State of Wisconsin Division of Corrections Bureau Of Juvenile Services Post-Secondary Education Pilot Program
James R. Wickman 29
Post Secondary Correctional Education: An Evaluation Of Parolee Performance
Jerry Holoway and Paul Moke 42
Needs Assessment In Correctional Education
Raymond Bell and Coleen McDonnell 54
The Relationships Of WAIS-R Scores, Social Variables And Educational Preparation To Reading Achievement In Prison Population
Scott Coleman Greenwood and Raymond Bell 64

PART II: INSTRUCTIONAL STATEGIES CORNER

Computer Labs In Ohio's Correctional Prerelease Program
Norman Rose, Ph.D. and Kurt Williams 81
Ethical Considerations In Land Use: An Exploration of Values In The Prison Lab Science Classroom
James A. Brey, Ph.D. 85
Peer Tutoring: It Makes A Difference In A Juvenile Detention Center School
Mrs. Betty W. Farrar 92
A Five Year Comparison Of APL Lifecoping Skills Test Results At Lebanon Correctional Institution
Donald DeBald 97

Correctional Education Association Fact Sheet 101

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We most gratefully acknowledge the work of Mrs. Peggy Bayles in putting this publication to press. As a member of the Division of Juvenile Court and Community Schools' clerical team, Mrs. Bayles has consistently demonstrated a commitment to excellence.

In this modern age of high technology and advanced office systems, Peggy Bayles has utilized every resource at her disposal and taken every opportunity to improve her skills in word processing and desk-top publishing in order to produce a high-quality journal. She was responsible for typing and word processing as well as proofing the original and final pre-press copy, a monumental task in the face of publication deadlines.

In addition, we thank the clerical team for their assistance, encouragement, and "back up" in the development of the journal.

EDITOR'S NOTES

Over the past several years, the Correctional Education Association has sent out a "call for papers" for its annual conference and published a journal to be distributed at the conference. This current journal of the 42nd annual conference of the Correctional Education Association is the most recent effort of CEA to provide a forum for identifying and disseminating research and/or program reports and to stimulate innovative thinking in correctional education.

The papers selected for this journal represent a broad range of issues facing correctional educators. As such, the journal has been divided into two parts, Part 1 containing appropriate research presentations and reports, and Part 2 which presents topics broadly grouped under **INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES CORNER.**

Of continuing interest to all correctional educators is the "political climate" of today. **Mark S. Hamm**, in the lead article for this journal, reports on a study which he conducted in Indiana. In his study, he looked at the expressed attitudes of Indiana legislators toward several key issues in corrections including rehabilitation and punishment of criminals. The attitudes and opinions of all policy makers, especially legislators, continue to shape the world of corrections and Mark Hamm presents a strong case for continued research investigation of these areas.

Three papers address the subject of postsecondary education programs in correctional settings. **Stephen Duguid**, Director of Simon Fraser University's Prison Education Program, provides some valuable insight into the organization and development of postsecondary prison education programs in Canada. The SFU Prison Education Program administers a postsecondary education program in four federal penetentiaries in British Columbia The program offers university credit courses leading to degree completion in several liberal arts disciplines. Each of the prison sites constitutes an off-campus program of the University, complete with classrooms, libraries, teaching staff, and required educational resources for support of the program.

The Wisconsin Postsecondary Education Pilot Program is a project serving juveniles 16.9 and older who are leaving two juvenile correctional facilities, the Ethan Allen School and the Lincoln Hills School. According to **James R. Wickman**, Community Services Specialist with the Bureau of Juvenile Services, the Pilot Program served delinquent youth who possessed the academic and emotional aptitude to succeed in a postsecondary school but who were not usually achieving with any measure of success at time of referral to the project. Mr. Wickman's paper is an adaptation of the final evaluation report of the Postsecondary Education Pilot Program issued in September, 1986.

The third paper addressing post-secondary issues looks into parolee performance in a follow-up study of adult inmates who had participated in post-secondary programming at Lebanon Correctional Institution in Lebanon, Ohio. In POSTSECONDARY CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION: AN EVALUATION OF PAROLEE PERFORMANCE, The authors, **Jerry Holloway and Paul Moke** of Wilmington College, studied more than three hundred former residents comparing their post-release behavior after one year on parole. Ninety-five of the former residents had participated in a post-secondary education program which led to an associate degree during their incarceration at Lebanon Correctional Institution.

Raymond Bell and Colleen McDonnell review requirements for conducting a thorough NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION. Their paper was based in part on work conducted under a Technical Assistance Grant from the National Institute of Corrections to the Washington State Department of Corrections.

Dr. Bell also co-authored a paper with **Scott Coleman Greenwood** presenting their findings in a study of reading achievement in prison populations. Specifically, Bell and Greenwood looked at the relationship of WAIS-R scores and several social and educational variables to reading achievement levels of prisoners in a sample population in three states. This research was supported in part by a grant to Lehigh University by the National Institute of Justice.

In Part 2 of the Journal, the **INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES CORNER**, several approaches to the education of the adult or juvenile offender are presented. As editor, I felt that it was important that this section of the journal be devoted to strategies, curricular issues, and evaluation of instructional programs which address the needs of the correctional population. This was a genuine attempt to provide a forum for practitioners---correctional educators---willing to share their experience and expertise with the correctional community.

Co-authors **Norman Rose and Kurk Williams** report on the use of COMPUTER LAB IN OHIO'S PRERELEASE PROGRAM. Focusing on job readiness, the program at the Ohio Correctional Prerelease Center received nearly every felon in Ohio scheduled for release during a two year period(1985-87). The evaluative data discussed in the paper suggest several possible advantages to establishing computer labs in similar correctional facilities.

A unique presentation by **Dr. James A. Brey** of the University of Wisconsin Center's Postsecondary ReEntry Education Program offers a view of instructional programming in correctional education which stresses practical field exercises in the geological and geographical sciences. Various aspects of the study of geology and geography form the nucleus of a laboratory activity involving community planning. The exercise relies on team cooperation, group facilitation, and ethical considerations in order to successfully complete the task. In ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN LAND USE: AN EXPLORATION OF VALUES IN THE PRISON LAB SCIENCE CLASSROOM, Dr. Brey shares his experience as Associate Director and lecturer in geology and geography in correctional facilities in Wisconsin.

Mrs. Betty W. Farrar, head teacher at the Juvenile Detention Center School of Cuyahoga County, Ohio, emphasizes the positive impact of peer tutoring on her instructional program. Dealing with a juvenile population from 11 to 18 years of age in a facility with a high turnover rate, Mrs. Farrar utilizes the skills of some of the students to enhance the educational program. Not only does she find reward in eductional prograsmming terms but, she suggests that peer tutoring provides valuable opportunities to enhance the self esteem of those youngsters who participate in the tutoring. PEER TUTORING: IT MAKES A DIFFERENCE IN A JUVENILE DETENTION CENTER SCHOOL presents an historical overview of the concept of peer tutoring and discusses several guidelines for success within the correctional education context.

Donald BeBald, of the Lebanon Correctional Institution, provides a piece of action research using the Adult Performance Level Assessment with correctional populations. A FIVE YEAR COMPARISON OF APL LIFECOPING SKILLS TEST RESULTS suggests that a program emphasizing life coping skills and problem solving may have particular relevance for the adult inmate.

I wish to thank all the contributors for providing very readable copy. I believe that correctional educators everywhere will also appreciate the efforts of these authors and will find this volume to be important reading.

R.K. Vitolo

PART I

RESEARCH AND PROGRAM REPORTS

THE POLITICS OF REHABILITATION: A STUDY OF LEGISLATIVE IDEOLOGY

Mark S. Hamm

Abstract

After a decade of ideological and empirical attacks on the "rehabilitative ideal", a number of commentators have been moved to ask, is rehabilitation dead? The present study attempts to examine whether correctional rehabilitation has indeed been sufficiently discredited and that policy makers favor exclusively punitive sanctions. Based on a survey of Indiana State legislators, the study revealed that, while support for punitive justifications exist, rehabilitation continues to occupy a legitimate place in criminal justice sanctioning ideology.

Contemporary American corrections is a curious configuration of two philosophies: Punishment and rehabilitation. [1]Advocates of punishment generally see themselves as "tough minded" and support criminal justice policies that deal with the human temptations to commit crime. Advocates of rehabilitation generally think of themselves as "doing good" and support the humane treatment of offenders. The notion that these philosophies should be complementary rather than conflicting functions of corrections was sewn into the very fabric of American penology. Indeed, Progressive reformers advocating the doctrine of "individualized treatment" felt safe in contending that "the prison could be humanely purposive, achieving at one stroke its punitive purposes and its curative potential." (Morris, 1974:14).

Throughout most of this century and particularly during the 1960's, rehabilitation was embraced by both policy makers and criminologists as the guiding principle of American corrections (cf. Rothman, 1980). Indeterminate sentencing, parole, probation, juvenile justice, treatment programs, and the "rise of the therapeutic state" (Kittrie, 1973, Jones, 1976) became logical extensions of the "rehabilitative ideal". Traditionally, rehabilitation has been favored widely over punishment both by those inside and outside the correctional arena. Louis Harris (1968 a,b,c) polls reported that in 1968 fully 72 percent of the public and 69 percent of the nation's correctional workers thought that rehabilitation "should be the emphasis" of prisons. Similarly, a 1973 survey conducted by Berk and Rossi (1977) concluded that political and criminal justice "elites" in three states believed strongly in rehabilitation. As one respected commentator observed in 1971: "We hear more often than ever before that the correctional mission is to rehabilitate" (Conrad, 1971:67).

Yet the potency of the rehabilitative ideal has diminished since the mid-1970's. A "crisis of rehabilitation" can be linked to several political and organizational factors that determine contemporary corrections policy. First, the national crime rate, beginning to seriously escalate in 1974, led conservatives to intensify their call for more stringent sanctions that would deter criminals and better protect society (Wilson, 1975; Van den Haag, 1975; cf. Finckenauer, 1978). Accordingly, correctional rehabilitation became an inviting target for criticism and came to be viewed by conservatives as an exercise in "bad democracy." (Cullen, et al., 1987a). Secondly, the disillusionment with rehabilitation was shared by liberals during the late 1970's and early 1980's. In their recoil from the Viet Nam War and Watergate, liberals began to distrust government and question the ability of corrections to deliver meaningful rehabilitation programs (Cullena and Gilbert, 1982; cf. Frankel, 1972; von Hirsch, 1976). Fearing that the discretion inherent in a system of individualized treatment would inevitably be abused by corrections officials and produce both class inequities in sentencing and a coercive penal environment, liberals turned to the philosophy of "just deserts": for each offense there should be a fixed (and shorter) humane sentence under humane conditions. The recent enactment of mandatory sentencing laws, fixed determinate sentencing schemes, and the abolition of parole reflects this trend (cf. von Hirsch and Hanrahan, 1978). Moreover, liberals were "charmed by the simplicity of prescribing the same penalty for everyone convicted of the same offense, and their rhetoric implied that this would somehow maximize both fairness and crime

prevention" (Glaser, 1985:499-500).

The attack on rehabilitation was fueled by the publication of Robert Martinson's work in 1974. Martinson (1974) led a legion of analysts from all political persuasions to accept that "nothing works" in corrections (Conrad, 1975; Doleschal and Klapmuts, 1973; Fogel, 1975; Lipton, Martinson, and Wilks, 1975; Van den Haag, 1975; Von Hirsch, 1976; Wilson, 1975; Wilks and Martinson, 1976; cf. Martinson, 1979 for his reconsideration of the research). Describing this period of American corrections, Norval Morris wrote in 1974 that "optimism is an unfashionable intellectual posture" (Morris, 1974:12).

Concomitantly, many academic criminologists began to lose contact with correctional institutuions during the 1970's. Irwin (1980:88n) argues that most criminologists of the period were "white and not well received by hostile blacks, Chicano, and native American spokesmen" within inmate populations. On balance, criminologists began to shift their attention from prisoners and criminals to the processes inherent in an emerging system of criminal justice. Finally, after years of embracing rehabilitation's basic tenents, submitting themselves to treatment strategies, and then leaving prison with great hope (yet limited opportunity) for a better future, prisoners themselves gave up on the rehabilitative ideal (Hallock and Witte, 1977; Hamm, 1987; Irwin, 1977; Morris, 1974; Sykes, 1986).

Recent events suggest that punishment dominates the administration of corrections in the nation. Moreover, the implementation of determinate sentencing has not fulfilled the liberal promise of reform. Research indicates that, at least in some instances, determinancy may actually increase the period of confinement, thereby increasing the severity of punishment (Clear et al., 1977; Greenberg and Humphries, 1980; Messinger and Johnson, 1978). States still clinging to the practice of indeterminate sentencing have also created longer sentences (Farrell and Swigert, 1978; Greenberg, 1972; Kleck, 1981; Twentieth Century Task Force on Criminal Sentencing, 1975). In June of 1985, those held captive in state prisons totalled 445,780 (American Correctional Association, 1986). This figure represents the largest number of inmates held in custody throughout the history of American corrections. Also, 38 states have resurrected capital punishment since 1972 and nearly 1600 U.S. prisoners now await the death sentence (ACA, 1986). This figure represents a 240% increase over death sentence figures reported in 1980, further indicating a trend toward punishment. Longitudinal research suggests that the public is also adopting more punitive attitudes toward the control of offenders (Flanagan and Caulfield, 1984; Rankin, 1979; Schniegold, 1984; Stinchcombe et al., 1980).

So what becomes of correctional rehabilitation during the 1980's? Does the prevailing ideology mean that rehabilitative measures no longer matter? Policy makers have recently agreed that the public is deeply punitive and has little use for traditional, liberal approaches to crime like rehabilitation (Cory and Gettinger, 1984; Cullen and Gilbert, 1982; Gottfredson and Taylor, 1983). Practitioners have demonstrated thin empirical evidence to confirm the rehabilitative ideal (Glaser, 1972; Zimbardo, 1975) and academic criminologists are not encouraged to focus their interests on correctional perspectives. [2] It is also common for today's media to portray both the public and criminal justice practitioners as frustrated with the leniency of the criminal justice system (cf. **Death Wish** and **Hill Street Blues**) and equally common for politicians to justify punitive policies on the grounds that they fulfill the public's "will" (Cullen et al., 1985; Flanagan and McGarrell, 1985; Riley and Rose, 1980; Scheingold, 1984).

In light of these considerations, the present study brings empirical evidence to bear on the extent to which rehabilitation has indeed been discredited and thus, the accuracy of the view that policy makers favor exclusively punitive policies. Based on a survey of Indiana legislators, this paper examines legislative support for rehabilitation and contrasts this to support for punitive justifications for the application of criminal sanctions. The various findings suggest that there is a duality to the legislative sanctioning ideology: While legislators clearly want offenders punished, they are firm in their opinion that offenders should also be rehabilitated.

METHOD

In the fall of 1986, survey packets were mailed to all Indiana legislative offices. The study employed the TDM survey technique developed by Dillman (1978) which involved sending a post card reminder as well as two follow-up questionnaires, followed by a telephone call to each non-respondent. These procedures yielded replies from 85 of the 150 members of the legislature (56 percent), of which 75 were usable (50 percent).

Respondents were compared to non-respondents on eight characteristics for which data were available for all members in the state's official government manual. Chi-square analyses revealed no statistically significant differences between respondents and the legislative membership as a whole in terms of sex, occupation, geographical area of the district, criminal justice committee membership, tenure in office, political party, or legislative affiliation. The "typical" Indiana legislator was a white male, college educated, businessman, and member of the legislature for six years. Additionally, he was a member of the Republican Party and resided in a suburban area of the State.

The questionnaire also elicited data on the extensiveness of members' contact with the criminal justice system. Nearly half of the legislators reported that they were assigned to one or more legislative committees that dealt with criminal justice issues. Nearly one-fourth of the sample had been employed as police officer, prosecutor, public defender, prison guard, probation officer, or court clerk. Twenty percent of the legislators had never been inside a correctional institution; and over 40 percent of the sample had been victimized, at least once, by criminals during the preceeding 12 month period. Notably, U.S. Department of Justice (1987) figures indicate that the average citizen has a 25 percent chance of becoming the victim of crime during a 12 month period.

In terms of general political orientation, the majority of legislators defined themselves as either "conservative", or "middle of the road". 3 Only 13 percent described themselves as "liberal". Legislators perceived their constituents to be somewhat more conservative than themselves. Less than 6 percent characterized their constituents as liberal; 50 percent described their constituency as "middle of the road"; and 45 percent perceived their constituents as politically conservative. In addition, measures were used to assess the severity of crime in legislative districts in order to determine the fit between legislator views of crime and recent Gallup poll findings on neighborhood safety. In 1984, 45 percent of the American public reported that they would be afraid to walk alone at night within one mile of their home. In contrast, nearly 80 percent of the Indiana legislator sample indicated that their constituency felt a sense of safety in their neighborhoods. Fully 55 percent of the legislators felt that crime was "not very serious" in their district; and nearly 80 percent indicated that crime had either decreased or remained constant over the past 12 months.

MEASURES

The questionnaire used in this research contained 43 items measuring attitudes toward various aspects of crime and criminal justice. The order in which an item appeared on the survey instrument was determined through random selection. Using an 8-point category scale ranging from 8=very strongly agree to 1=very strongly disagree, the respondents were asked to "state the extent to which you either agree or disagree with each of the statements listed below."

Within the list of 43 statements, a number of items were included to assess attitudes toward the traditional justifications of criminal sanctioning. Specifically, 6 statements tapped the degree to which the sample advocated the general philosophy of punishment. Of these, 3 attempted to measure support for the rationale of deterrence, and 3 questions examined support for incapacitation. These items and percent distribution for each are listed in Table 1. Conversely, the questionnaire contained 9 statements which weighted the respondents' beliefs about various aspects of the rehabilitative ideal. These items are presented in Table 2.

RESULTS OF THE INDIANA LEGISLATOR SURVEY

SUPPORT FOR PUNISHMENT

Table 1 reports the extent to which legislators endorsed punishment as a function of criminal justice. The data in Table 1 reveal that legislators manifested considerable faith in deterrence as the primary goal of the criminal justice system (Item 1). However, less than half of the sample supported policies that teach criminals that "crime does not pay" (Items 2 and 3). This result is not easily explained; yet in line with current research on deterrence (cf. Liska, 1987), it is not a surprising result. In the main, research indicates that while deterrence has great popular appeal, policy makers are cautious about increasing the severity, certainty, and celerity of state punishments for law violations (Gibbs, 1975). It is possible that the present result reflects a belief that, as they are currently being operated, prisons are not efficacious crime stoppers. Yet it may also be that Items 2 and 3 assess the legislator's understanding that not all offenders can be scared straight by the experience of imprisonment. Moreover, it may be that legislators realizedthat penal sanctions are not a complete panacea for the crime problem.

TABLE 1: PERCENTAGE OF LEGISLATORS AGREEING WITH PUNISHMENT ITEMS

Items	% Agree	% Disagree	% Undecided
Deterrence Items			
1. Deterrence should be the primary goal of the criminal justice system.	42.5	57.5	0.0
2. Stiffer jail sentences are needed to show criminals that crime doesn't pay.	47.3	52.8	0.0
3. Punishing criminals more harshly would reduce crime by setting an example and showing others that crime does not pay.	47.4	50.1	2.7
Incapacitation Items			
4. Incapacitation should be the primary goal of the criminal justice system.	29.0	71.0	0.0
5. People who commit serious crimes deserve to be put away for a long time.	91.9	1.4	6.8
6. Even if prisons can't deter or rehabilitate criminals, long prison sentences are needed so that we can keep habitual and dangerous offenders off of our streets.	82.4	13.6	4.1

In contrast to these complexities, Table 1 clearly indicates that a wide majority of the lawmakers supported policies of incapacitation, even though less than 30 percent of the sample indicated that incapacitation should by the primary goal of criminal justice (Item 4). It is apparent that legislators want long prison sentences "so that we can keep habitual and dangerous offenders off of our streets." (Items 5 and 6).

Support for Rehabilitation

While there was pronounced support in the sample for punishment in general, the data presented inTable 2 suggest that rehabilitation is also a vital component of criminal sanctioning ideology. A full third of the legislator sample indicated that rehabilitation should be the primary objective of criminal justice (Item 1), and nearly 80 percent agreed that "Rehabilitation is as important as making a criminal pay for his or her crime" (Item 2). Of even greater significance, Items 3, 4, 5 and 6 in Table 2 furnish clear evidence that the legislators viewed rehabilitation as a legitimate and worthwhile function of imprisonment. Moreover, it appears that, while legislators want criminals to be punished, they believe that efforts should also be made to effect the reformation of offenders.

TABLE 2: PERCENTAGE OF LEGISLATORS AGREEING WITH REHABILITATION ITEMS

Items	% Agreeing	% Disagreeing	% Undecided
Rehabilitation			
1. Rehabilitation should be the primary goal of the criminal justice system.	33.0	67.0	0.0
2. Rehabilitating a criminal is as important as making a criminal pay for his or her crime.	78.3	19.0	2.7
3. Rehabilitation programs in our prisons should be expanded.	83.8	16.2	0.0
4. Society has a right to try to rehabilitate criminals even if they don't want to be rehabilitated.	73.0	25.8	1.4
5. Inmates who participate in treatment programs and show signs of being rehabilitated should be released earlier than inmates who refuse to try to beter themselves.	89.2	8.2	2.7
6. Whether or not an inmate is involved in a rehabilitation program should have no influence on when he or she is released from prison.	16.3	81.0	2.7
7. The rehabilitation of adult criminals just does not work.	25.8	73.0	1.4
8. The rehabilitation of juveniles just does not work.	4.1	96.1	0.0
9. It would be irresponsible for us to stop trying to rehabilitate juvenile delinquents.	91.9	8.2	0.0

One reason for the apparent tenacity of the rehabilitative ideal can be drawn from the responses to items 7, 8, and 9. Here, many lawmakers rejected the conclusion that offenders cannot be rehabilitated. Only about a fourth felt that "The rehabilitation of adult criminals just does not work" (Item 7), and 96 percent of the sample indicated a belief in the efficacy of rehabilitation for juveniles. Over 91 percent of the lawmakers indicated that "it would be irresponsible for us to stop trying to rehabilitate juvenile delinquents" (Item 9). These findings are somewhat surprising in light of the degree to which both the public and academic criminologists have advocated punitive policies and sought to convince others of Martinson's (1974) contention that "rehabilitation doesn't work".

Punishment and Rehabilitation

The data reported in Tables 1 and 2 allow the investigation of several other dimensions of legislators' attitudes toward punishment and rehabilitation. First, the overall mean of support for the punishment items was 4.48, while that for the rehabilitation items was 6.16 (where 8=high support and 1-low support). This finding indicates that there was greater support in the legislator sample for rehabilitation when compared to punishment ($F=3.52$, $p<.001$), but that punishment was also clearly accepted. Secondly, a correlation matrix of the 6 deterrence items and the 9 rehabilitation items was created in an effort to determine the extent to which lawmakers advocated both punishment and rehabilitation ideologies. Examination of the bivariate correlation coefficients indicated that there was moderate collinearity among responses to punishment and rehabilitation items. For example, a lawmakers stance on incapacitation (Table 1; Item 5) was significantly associated with his or her position on many rehabilitation issues (Table 2; Items 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, and 9). The average Pearson correlation coefficient between these items was .44 (all coefficients were significant at the .01 level of chance). Likewise, support for deterrence as the primary goal of criminal justice (Table 1; Item 1) was significantly related to support for the expansion of rehabilitation programs in prison (Table 2; Item 3). The coefficient for this correlation was .40 ($p< .001$).

The strength of these relationships further imply that lawmakers embrace both punishment and rehabilitation as legitimate bases for contemporary corrections policy. Yet those relationships may also suggest that positions on criminal justice are determined by a set of attributes or influences that are independent of the specific issue at hand, but which bring a measure of ideological order or cohesion to a lawmaker's stance on specific policies related to punishment and rehabilitation. Identification of these correlates and the measurement of their influence are examined in the remainder of this paper.

Correlates of Support for Punishment

Thus far ignored in the present research has been the issue of retribution as a form of state punishment. Legal analysts contend that retribution is the most primitive and least utilitarian form of criminal sanctioning (Streib, 1987; Vanore, 1986). Accordingly, data on legislative attitudes toward retribution ought to prove valuable in a discussion of state support for rehabilitation. The policy selected for analysis in the present research was the death penalty for juveniles convicted of murder. Recently, Indiana has been the focus of both national and international attention concerning capital punishment for juveniles because State law allows the execution of a ten year old convicted of murder (cf. Streib, 1987).

In a separate section of the survey questionnaire, legislators were asked to express their opinion on ten current criminal justice policy issues (including capital punishment for juveniles) by indicating "whether you would strongly oppose, oppose, favor, strongly favor or take a neutral stance" on each issue. Over 46 percent of the lawmakers participating in this survey supported the death penalty for juveniles convicted of murder. The background characteristics and related attitudinal positions associated with legislative support for this policy were examined through the use of chi-square tests.

Lawmakers' self-description of their "political orientation" was significantly associated with support for the capital punishment of juveniles. Among self-described "liberals", only 10 percent favored the sanction ($X = 4.04$, $p< .05$). In contrast, over 95 percent of the "conservative" supported capital punishment for

juveniles (X - 11.57, p, .001). In terms of personal characteristics associated with race, sex, occupation, party affiliation, tenure in office, district urbanicity, education, and criminal justice experience; no variable contributed to understanding support for the capital punishment of juveniles convicted of murder. However, support for the policy was significantly linked to one attitudinal item in the survey. Over 91 percent (X = 5.24, p< .05) of the juvenile death penalty supporters disagreed with the proposal that "Rehabilitation in our prisons should be expanded" (Table 2; Item 3). Taken together, these findings suggest that legislative support for punishment can be best understood by focusing on the political orientation of lawmakers and their attitude toward the expansion of rehabilitative opportunities for offenders.

CONCLUSION

Much of what we know about legislators is based upon stereotypes of "conservative" and "liberal" politicians. Conservatives, we are told, think crime results from the "free will" of offenders, and so efforts to reduce crime by changing human behavior is futile. Instead, society can best control crime by adopting "get tough" policies that will deter potential criminals, and incapacitate active ones. And if these methods fail, then society should not flinch at the use of punishment solely for the purpose of retribution. Liberals, we are told, think crime is associated with poverty and its correlates: deteriorating neighborhoods, broken homes, unemployment, and inadequate slum schools. If these conditions cannot be corrected, then liberals suggest that we ought to rehabilitate those individuals who run afoul of the law; and do so with a great sense of equity and fairness (cf. Wilson and Herrnstein, 1985: 489-508).

Previous research indicates that viewing state legislatures as "ideologically monolithic" is a serious error (Berk and Rossi, 1977; Cullen et al., 1985; Flanagan and McGarrell, 1986; Gottfredson and Taylor, 1983; Johnson and Huff, 1985; Lyday, 1975). Indeed, the present research confirms this position. Legislators were found to be predominantly conservative, yet they expressed strong support for rehabilitation. While on one hand they endorsed deterrence as the guiding principle of the justice system, on the other hand they strongly believed in sentencing criminals for incapacitation and rehabilitation purposes. The multidimensionality of these data seem to contribute little to clarifying the complexities and ambiguities that characterize contemporary crime control strategy in American. This would be so except for two reasons.

First, the present study has succeeded in presenting evidence that may contribute to understanding one of the complexities between punishment and rehabilitation. By addressing the relationship between support for punishment and rehabilitation rationales, and discovering an intensity related to the nature of a particular offense (homicide) and the nature of the offender (a juvenile), this paper has systematically investigated the degree to which a specific crime control strategy (capital punishment) was endorsed. Sociodemographic influences which brought a sense of cohesion to a typical lawmakers' position on criminal sanctioning were also discovered. Contrary to previous legislative surveys, the present study suggests that sterotypes about "conservative" and "liberal" policy makers may be more fact than fancy. Moreover, while a wide majority of legislators appreciated the value of divergent goals that are inherent in the legislative consideration of crime control policy, some lawmakers do approach policy making from a narrow range of attitudinal positions.

Finally, among the utilitarian goals of corrections, rehabilitation was supported more than either deterrence or incapacitation by lawmakers. This finding concurs with those recently drawn by Cullen and his associates (1987b) in their survey of public attitudes toward rehabilitation in Illinois. Summarily, "it appears that the rehabilitative ideal has withstood the many attempts to discredit it and remains firmly anchored in the American value structure."

NOTES

1. Rehabilitation, deterrence, incapacitation, and retribution are typically viewed as the four traditional goals of American crime control policy. In this paper, the author will treat deterrence, incapacitation, and

retribution as components of punishment since these concepts all share a punitive orientation toward the offender. In turn, the author will conceptualize rehabilitation as the qualitatively different goal of inmate reform or human betterment. Thus, punishment and rehabilitation are conceptualized as the two broad purposes of "criminal sanctioning". This distinction appears to conform with empirical reality (Cullen et al., 1987b; Flanagan and McGarrell, 1986). These studies indicate a clear tendency for the items measuring deterrence, incapacitation, and retribution to be positively related to each other, but negatively related to the items assessing rehabilitation.

2. Since 1982, the priority area for federal research on crime, delinquency, and criminal justice has been "criminal careers". Consequently, limitations have been placed on research outside this tradition on the grounds that such research is less likely to deliver results of policy significance (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1986). As a result, a "closed system" of research has emerged in criminology and criminal justice, leaving rehabilitation a reclacitrant area of analysis.

3. Admittedly, there are substantial threats to construct validity when the term "middle of the road" is used to characterize one's political orientation. Does the term imply a straddling of the ideological fence between "liberal" and "conservative" politics; or does the term signify a non-response to the question? Accordingly, responses coded "middle of the road" must be interpreted with caution.

REFERENCES

American Correctional Association (1986). **Directory.** Rockville, MD: ACA.

Berk, R.A., and Rossi, P.H. (1977). **Prison reform and state elites**. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Clear, T.R.; Hewitt, J.D.; and Rigoli, R.M. (1977). Discretion and the determinate sentence, its distribution, control and effect on time served. **Crime and Delinquency** 24: 428-445.

Conrad, J.P. (1971). What should society expect of corrections? Paper presented at the National Conference on Corrections, Williamsburg, VA.

---------- (1975). We should never have promised a hospital. **Federal Probation** 39: 3-9.

Cory, B., and Gettinger, S. (1984). **Time to build? The realities of prison construction.** New York: Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.

Cullen, F.T.; Skovron, S.; Burton, V.; and Scott J.E. (1987a). Public support for correctional rehabilitation: Implications for Ohio. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, St. Louis, MO.

Cullen, F.T.; Cullen, J.B.; and Wozniak, J.F. (1987b). Is rehabilitation dead? The myth of the punitive public. **Journal of Criminal Justice,** forthcoming.

Cullen, F.T.; Bynum, T.S.; Garrett, K.M.; and Greene, J.R. (1985). Legislative ideology and criminal justice policy. In **The politics of crime and criminal justice,** eds., E. Fairchild and V. Webb, 57-76. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Cullen, F.T., and Gilbert, K.E. (1982). **Reaffirming Rehabilitation.** Cincinnati: Anderson.

Dillman, D.A. (1978). **Mail and telephone surveys: The total design method.** New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Doleschal, E., and Klapmuts, N. (1973). Towards a new criminology. **Crime and Delinquency Literature 5:** 607-627.

Farrell, R.A., and Swigert, V.L. (1978). Prior offense as a self-fulfilling prophecy. **Law and Society Review** 12: 437-453.

Finckenauer, J.O. (1978). Crime as a national political issue: 1964-76-- From law and order to domestic tranquility. **Crime and Delinquency** 24 (January): 13-27.

Flanagan, T.J., and McGarrell, E.F. (1986). Attitudes of New York legislators toward crime and criminal justice: A report of the state legislator survey-- 1985. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Criminal Justice Science, Orlando, FL.

Flanagan, T.J., and Caulfield, S.L. (1984). Public opinion and prison policy: A review. **The Prison Journal** 64 (Fall-Winter): 31-46.

Fogel, D. (1975). **We are the living proof: The justice model for corrections.** Cincinnati: Anderson.

Frankel, M.E. (1972). **Criminal sentences: Law without order.** New York: Hill and Wang.

Gibbs, J.P. (1975). Crime, punishment and deterrence. New York: Elsmere.

Glaser, D. (1985). Six principles and one precaution for efficient sentencing and corrections. In **Correctional Institutions,** eds., R.M. Carter, D. Glaser, and L.T. Wilkins, 494-504. New York: Harper and Row.

- - - - - - - - - -(1972). The effectiveness of correctional education. In **Correctional Institutions** eds, R,M, Carter, D. Glaser, and L.T. Wilkins, 318-328.

Gottfredson, M., and Hirschi, T. (1986). The true value of lambda would appear to be zero: An essay on career criminals, criminal careers, selective incapacitation, cohort studies, and related topic: **Criminology** 24: 213-234.

Gottfredson, S.D., and Taylor, R.B. (1983). **The correctional crisis: Prison populations and public policy.** Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice.

Greenberg, D. (1972). Rehabilitation is still punishment. **The Humanist** 32: 29-36.

Halleck, S.L., and Witte, A.D. (1977). Is rehabilitation dead? **Crime and Delinquency** 23: 372-382.

Hamm, M.S. (1987). The crisis of implementation in correctional education. **The Journal of Correctional Education, forthcoming.**

Harris, L. (1968a). **The public looks at crime and corrections.** Washington, DC: Joint Commission of Correctional Manpower and Training.

- - - - - - - - -(1968b). Changing public attitudes toward crime and corrections. **Federal Probation** 32 (December): 9-16.

- - - - - - - - - - - (1968c). **Corrections 1968: A climate for change.** Washington, DC: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training.

Irwin, J. (1980). **Prisons in Turmoil.** Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

- - - - - - - - - - - -(1977). The changing social structure of the men's prison. In **Corrections and**

Punishment, ed., D. Greenberg, 21-40. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Johnson, B.A., and Huff, C.R. (1985). Public opinion and policy formulation in state government. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, Las Vegas.

Jones, M. (1976). **Maturation of the therapeutic community.** New York: Behavioral Science Publications.

Kittrie, N.N. (1973). **The right to be different: Deviance and enforced therapy.** Baltimore: Penguin Books.

Kleck, G. (1981). Racial discrimination in criminal sentencing: A critical evaluation of the evidence on the death penalty. American **Sociological Review**. 46: 783-805.

Lipton, D., Martinson, R., and Wilks, J. (1975). The **Effectiveness of Correctional Treatment.** New York: Praeger.

Liaka, A. E. (1987). **Perspectives on deviance,** Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Lyday, W.M. (1975). **State legislator perceptions of criminal justice issues.** Unpublished dissertation, Ohio State University.

Martinson, R. (1974). What works? -- Questions and answers about prison reform. **Public Interest** (Spring): 22-54.

----------(1979). New findings, new views: A note of caution regarding sentencing reform. **Hofstra Law Review** 7: 243-258.

Messinger, S.L. and Johnson, P.D. (1978). California's determinate sentencing statute: History and issues. In **Determinate sentencing: Reform or regression?** Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Morris, N. (1974). **The future of imprisonment**. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Rankin, J. (1979). Changing attitudes toward capital punishment. **Social Forces** 58 (September): 194-211.

Riley, P.J., and Rose, V.M. (1980). Public and elite opinion concerning correctional reform: Implications for social policy. **Journal of Criminal Justice** 8: 345-356.

Rothman, D.J. (1980). **Conscience and convenience: The asylum and its alternatives in progressive America.** Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Schiengold, S.A. (1984). **The politics of law and order: Street crime and public policy. New York**: Longman Press.

Stinchcombe, A.L.; Adams, R.; Heimer, C.A.; Scheppele, K.L.; Smith, T.W.; and Taylor, D.G. (1980). **Crime and punishment: Changing attitudes in America.** San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Streibe, V. (1987). **Juveniles and the Death Penalty**. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Sykes, G. (1986). Treatment of the captives: Ethical implications. Paper presented at the Conference on Reaffirming Rehabilitation, Arlington, VA.

Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Criminal Sentencing (1976). **Fair and certain punishment.** New York: McGraw Hill.

U. S. Department of Justice (1987). **The Prevalence of Crime.** Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Van den Haag, E. (1975). **Punishing criminals: Concerning a very old and painful question.** New York: Basic Books.

Vanore, L.A. (1986). The decency of capital punishment for minors: Contemporary standards and the dignity of juveniles. **Indiana Law Journal** 61: 757-791.

von Hirsch, A., and Hanrahan, K. J. (1978). **Abolish parole?** Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

von Hirsch, A. (1976). **Doing justice: The choice of punishments**. New York: Hill and Wang.

Wilks, J., and Martinson, R. (1976). Is the treatment of criminal offenders really necessary? **Federal Probation** (March): 3-8.

Wilson, J.Q. (1975). **Thinking about crime.** New York: Vintage Books.

Wilson, J.Q., and Herrnstein, R.J. (1985). **Crime and Human Nature.** New York: Simon and Schuster.

Zimbardo, P.G. (1975). Letter to the editor. **APA Monitor** (July): 3.

UNIVERSITY PRISON EDUCATION
IN BRITISH COLUMBIA
COMBINING ACADEMIC AND LIVING SKILLS FOR PERSONAL GROWTH

Stephen Duguid

Introduction

Simon Fraser University administers programs in four federal prisons in British Columbia, offering a wide range of Liberal Arts Courses via in-person instruction by university staff. While the greatest part of the curriculum consists of 1st and 2nd year courses as well as an extensive 'university-prep' non-credit program, courses are also offered at the advanced level leading to the B.A. degree. While over twenty men have completed university degrees in British Columbia prisons since 1974, and an equal number have completed B.A. degrees on campus after release, hundreds more have used their prison education experience in achieving other educational goals, in enhancing their employment opportunities, and in enriching their personal lives.

University-level prison education has played a unique role in the recent history of correctional practice in British Columbia, its role in the prison ranging far beyond the offering of standard courses to a few highly qualified inmates. Staff of the SFU program would be the first to agree that the mere completion of courses or accumulation of university credits will be less than decisive in shaping the future behaviour of the prisoner-students. Likewise, university courses for prisoners are no panacea for the wide range of complex management problems faced by corrections administrators. Indeed, university prison programs which restrict entry to the few and which focus only on course delivery may turn out to be peculiarly ineffective and inappropriate for the corrections setting. Immersion in a university-level educational experience, however, is quite another matter and, while still far from a panacea, such immersion can in fact have a decisive impact on the present and future behaviour of the individuals involved. As well, assuming full cooperation with institutional staff, a sophisticated off-campus university program can have a refreshing impact on the prison itself.

For a university level program to be an appropriate form of educational programming for the C.S.C. it must meet or at least strive to address the obvious need for literacy instruction, for enhanced employment opportunities, and for the imparting of social/living skills to a broad range of inmates in the correctional system. In other words, it cannot be elitist in either its membership or its content. The Report which follows illustrates the steps taken over the past three years by the Simon Fraser University Program to meet these institutional objectives while at the same time maintaining the integrity of its core academic program.

Are University Students A Prison Elite?

It is logical to assume that prisoners who enroll in university courses are some sort of an elite. By taking the initiative to enroll it may be assumed, for instance, that they are more literate, more highly motivated, have personal ambitions, and are oriented toward some kind of personal or career change. This perception is supported by several studies of education programs. Robert Ross notes that most 'treatment' programs are accused of working with only a highly selected type of subject, what he calls the YAVIS syndrome (young, attractive, verbal, intelligent, successful). (1978, p. 285) The study by Blumstein of an American university level prison program stressed the impact of the prevalence of "better risks" in the program on any attempt to evaluate post-release success. (1974, p. 41) Finally, in a review of Cohen and Taylor's famous book on long-term imprisonment, Sapsford doubts the generalizability of their interview and research results because as university teachers they met prisoners who were "...literate, verbally fluent, and had some inclination toward sociology of the abstract discussion of society and social processes." (1978, p. 129)

University programs are inevitably voluntary and therefore like virtually all prison programs they suffer from the self-selection 'problem' when it comes time for evaluation. The criteria for that self-selection may be elitist in nature - e.g. the strongest, 'most likely to succeed', or most influential - or it may be based on more circumstantial factors such as access, school environment, or availability of other programs. The SFU Program has attempted to mitigate any elitist tendencies of such a selection process by:

(1) easing access through a policy of open admission;
(2) providing in-house academic upgrading programs for those who need them;
(3) resisting the intrusion of 'prison politics' into the academic area;
(4) maintaining a social environment conducive to widespread participation and;
(5) creating an 'adult education' rather than strictly 'higher education' rationale for the program's continued presence in the prison community - in effect engaging in a constant process of 'outreach' into the prison community.

As a result of these policies and the unique position of the University Program in the overall educational structure of the Region, the SFU Program has managed to attract a genuine cross-section of the "literate two-thirds", if such a group exists, of the prison population.

Each of the SFU Programs attracts about 50 men at the beginning of each trimester. These men are admitted as 'mature students' following an extensive interview with the SFU resident coordinator. This intake represents approximately 15-20% of the population of these institutions, only slightly higher than the post-secondary participation rate for citizens in British Columbia. Of these 50 men, approximately 35 are still enrolled for credit in each prison at the conclusion of each trimester, the others opting out either by choice, because of academic difficulty, or through prison-related matters. At least half of this attrition is due solely to transfers of students among prisons.

Upon close examination, the admitted students do not appear to be significantly different from other prisoners. In the 1980 Follow-Up Study of the University Program, two groups of 65 men each, one made up of university students the other non-students, were compared in a number of areas. The average age for both groups was the same, 33 years. In terms of educational background, there was a statistically significant difference, the prisoner-students having a mean pre-incarceration grade completion of 10.27 and the non-student group a grade completion of 8.45. As the Report notes, despite this difference "...65% of the university students had not completed high school, and 25% were Grade 8 or below, prior to enrollment in the University Program in prison." Both groups included the full range of criminal offences, with the university students having a higher (49% to 31%) percentage of Narcotics-related offences. 56% of the university group were reported to have an opiate addiction record compared to 21% of the non-student group (which in turn had a higher percentage of alcohol abuse) and the University group had slightly longer sentences.

The 1980 Report concluded that while the ".Group from the University Program appears to start out with some advantage in terms of possible future success of its students", this potential is perhaps offset by the high levels of opiate usage and the higher length of sentences. In fact, of the 13 ex-students who did suffer "further contact with the law" during the three years after release (16% of the total group), the only thing they had in common was a record of opiate addiction.

The "status-issue' of the prisoner-students relative to other prisoners is somewhat problematic, our experience indicating fairly wide variance depending on the institution and on the shifting make-up of the student body. In some instances a particular prison education program may find itself populated by men who are perceived as 'weak' in reference to the prevailing inmate culture, thus making that program an unattractive place for men who wish to either maintain or acquire 'prison status'. In other cases the school area may be perceived as being not a 'solid' area, that is an area where there is too much evidence of cooperation with prison or outside agency staff. On the whole, however, the university centres in British Columbia have been successful in, on the one hand, attracting a significant proportion of an already existing prison elite (the so-called hard cons) and, on the other hand, transforming rather ordinary

prisoners into a new kind of elite - students with academic skills and externally validated prestige. This latter group has proven to be of great utility to the rest of the prison population in terms of membership on inmate committees and as resource persons for men faced with parole applications/hearings, family problems, or disciplinary problems. Indeed some administrators credit university students with creating a "calmer" atmosphere in the prison and with "defusing" potentially violent eruptions. This latter phenomenon seemed especially evident in the hours and days following the infamous Matsqui riot.

Whatever the source of status for prisoner-students, imported or created, the staff of the university program go to great lengths to ensure that status in the Program accrues primarily to academic success rather than prison-related feats of valour or duplicity. As is stressed throughout this review, the intent is to create an identity called 'student' out of the person called 'prisoner' and to endow that new identity with attributes, skills, and attitudes that are similar to those found in the typical adult student at Simon Fraser University or any other post-secondary institution.

While the prisoner-students are free to pursue their university studies in 'splendid isolation' within the Program, in fact much more is expected of them by the university staff and by their peers. More than the 'outside' student, the prisoner-student is expected to assume specific obligations toward his less fortunate or less able fellow prisoners. Thus this new academic elite is encouraged to attract other men to education programs, to work with men pursuing their GED Certificate or engaged in ABE programs, and to use their skills to identify and work with men with literacy problems. It is here in this realm of community involvement, more than with the success of individual university students, that the real value of the Program to the prison and to the prisoners is to be found.

How Does Education for Individual Development Work?

There is a clear sense in which the very act of successfully completing a university level course is in fact an exercise in accumulating and using living skills. To accomplish this task a student must be able simultaneously to:

- follow instructions and exercise individual initiative;
- ingest complex written and verbal information;
- organize data and impressions;
- form opinions;
- look for connections that may be hidden or obtuse;
- frame literate responses to questions and assignments;
- develop the ability to communicate in writing;
- argue a point of view in a convincing (and civil) manner;
- perform well under pressure.

While on the one hand these are obviously 'academic' skills typically for use in the classroom, it is equally obvious that they are also essential 'living skills', crucial for civil functioning in a social environment.

The university classes, then, form the crucial base for the developmental agenda that is part and parcel of all education, not just education in prisons. It is in the classroom, in neutral territory so to speak, that the skills and assumptions basic to all human interactions are placed on the table, debated, tested, and nurtured. Formal education, especially at the highly prestiguous university level, works because it is externally validated. There is no hint of this educational program being a 'rehabilitative' or 'curative' exercise, thus increasing the value or worth of the project in the eyes of the student who, generally speaking, rejects the need for such a cure.

The linkage between the academic university program and the acquisition of living skills spills over from the classroom into the larger environments of the prison academic centres. For instance, the fact that the SFU Program is an off-campus program of the University means that all courses must be started and completed within the timetable established at the University, that all University regulations must be adhered to, and that the social and ethical rules of common behaviour in force at the University must also prevail at the prison site. After all, University faculty teach the courses and SFU students are frequent visitors. This intrusion of 'outside time' and 'University rules' into the lives of the prisoner-students has a dramatic effect on their very notion of time and on their sense of self as student rather than prisoner.

Within the prison programs students are encouraged - even forced - to assume a significant level of responsibility for the welfare and administration of their education program. They may choose to do this through representative mechanisms such as student councils, or through periodic 'mass meetings' with each other and with university staff. They are asked to advise on budgetary matters and on curriculum design, must assist in choosing instructional staff, organize their own social events, and determine how to 'police' the university area on an on-going basis and during times of crisis or tension within the institution. It is in this realm of limited self-government that the notions of reason, common sense, compromise, empathy, causation, and ethics which were dealt with intellectually in the classroom are dealt with politically. And it is here, in this arena of clashing interests, constant tensions and incessant rumours, where theory becomes practice, where ideas become internalized or are tossed aside. This record of 12 trouble-free years of inmates solving problems in conjunction with staff is a powerful testimony to the success of the program.

The university classes and the democratic communities which they nurture are not closed communities. To avoid any hint of elitism and the sterility which could flow from it, the University Programs in each institutuion engage in various forms of community outreach - each one in a sense having its own adult/continuing education program. Thus senior level students in each program act as tutor/instructors for all new and prospective students, holding classes in communication skills, computer literacy, and the Humanities (all non-credit). Other tutors work one-to-one with students who need special help, whether with English, study skills, or a specific course. Outside the University program itself, students work with GED students, with men engaged in correspondence or other courses, and work closely with other teachers in programs in helping men with reading and writing problems.

Groups of University students work closely with the Student Society at SFU in bringing speakers, films, and student groups into the prisons to meet with groups of prisoners interested in specific issues or problems. Such continuing education activity goes a long way toward breaking down the social isolation of prisoners, keeps them in touch with outside political and social issues, and forces social interactions with a wide variety of people - people who by their very presence encourage once again the suitability, even desireability, of a 'student' rather than 'prisoner' identity.

Finally, the Fine Arts component of the University Program -- primarily theatre -- involves large numbers of students and other prisoners in social interactions with outside actors, an audience, and each other. Such productions require a significant amount of cooperative behaviour and compromise on the part of a disparate group of men. While the emergence of the 'star' is a possibility, in essence these activities are group activities and as such they reinforce the overall objectives of the University Program.

In each of these aspects of the University Program it is assumed that a persona called 'student' does in fact exist in the world outside of prisons and that it may be a useful model for prisoners to adopt on the way toward considering an 'other than criminal' identity after release. All but the most incorrigible prisoners consider while in prison the possibility of a new identity after release, though few manage to pull it off. Part of the problem may be that they aim too high, aspiring to move from prisoner/criminal to citizen/businessman in one step. The interim step of student might be a more modest and practical alternative.

Becoming a student in the prison might also lead to a viable transistion after release. At Simon Fraser, the typical student is far from the traditional 18 year old high school graduate. Rather, our student is older, is likely to be working and going to school part-time, lives away from home, and takes up to ten years to graduate. This model or image of the student is one that is in fact accessible to men in prison, enabling them to adopt the identity of the student without excessive chronological, social, or economic contortions. In so doing they enter a social world characterized by different expectations than that which they lived in before or that which exists in prison. Some men will no doubt wish to carry their student identity onto campus after release (an average of 5 men per trimester arrive at SFU fresh from the prison) - most will be content to leave their 'studenthood' in prison. Either way is preferable to the usual abrupt transition from convict to citizen.

What all these component parts of the University Program lead to is that most essential building block of a healthy personality: self-esteem. The men have become students, they have turned around a potentially debilitating and destructive experience and made it into something positive. The resulting sense of pride, accomplishment and of a new beginning is what human development is all about.

Why a 'University' Program?

The modern university in North America is increasingly becoming identified as a centre of lifelong learning. Reaching beyond the world of adolescent high school graduates and the offspring of a socio-economic elite, the university is a centre of training for career changes, for professional development, for quality of life enhancement and, in many cases a place where adults can have a second chance at gaining a higher education. In this sense, then, adult prisoners with deprived or deficient formal educational backgrounds but with the requisite intelligence, life experience and native abilities are an appropriate client group for university studies.

University studies can prove difficult for adults with weak educational backgrounds but experience in the Senior Citizens Program and the Mature Students Program at SFU and with similar programs at other universities demonstrates clearly that with sufficient support systems, these students can succeed and that when they do succeed they tend to out-perform more traditional students. When they do experience success at university work the sense of self-esteem or self-worth which accrues to them is quite significant. This seems particularly applicable to prisoner-students who tend to place an excessive value or esteem on university work and who under normal circumstances would never envisage themselves as 'university material'.

Finally, in total opposition to most of conventional wisdom on such matters, the university Liberal Arts curriculum is probably the most effective type of education for enabling these men to engage once again with the contemporary job market. With its focus on breadth of knowledge, on the mastering of sophisticated communication skills, on computer and scientific literacy, and on critical thinking and argument, the Liberal Arts educational experience trains people for adaptation to changing economic and social realities. With its focus on seminars, writing, individual initiative, and a clear grasp of the ethical and objective components of all issues, this type of education also addresses most directly the unique cognitive and moral reasoning deficits which most experts agree prisoners suffer from.

Aside from its peculiarly appropriate "fit" with the social and educational needs of a broad spectrum of prisoners, university education can also be of great benefit to the correctional institution itself. In British Columbia, CSC staff in the institutions are able to enroll in special sections of university courses at no cost to themselves or the CSC. As well, the University has made available to the staff the full spectrum of its Distance Education curriculum, including the Certificate Program in Criminology, also at no extra cost. There is, therefore, an element of professional staff development which can accompany a program designed initially for prisoners.

The University, as part of its activity in the prisons, also supports an active program of research in the field of corrections education. As part of this research program papers are published, the University and the CSC are well represented at national and international conferences, and all of the staff involved are made aware of the wider context in which they operate. The results of this research in turn enhances the educational programs and the professional well being of University and CSC staff. Because research is an integral part of any university enterprise, this is an added bonus which would not generally be available through other educational levels.

Finally, the University maintains a high degree of professional interest in the enterprise of corrections education, integrating the prison education program into the mainstream of its operation. As a result, innovative programs such as the Certificate Program in Literacy Instruction are developed for application in the Program, special curricula are created such as the **Humanities Core Curriculum** which are applied at various levels within the correctional system, and courses reflecting the discipline of prison education are created for teaching on campus and in the prison.

The University remains one of the more flexible institutions available to the CSC for meeting the varied educational needs of its inmate population. The varied curriculum, the training and use of student instructors, the wide range of resources available on the campus, the potential for continuing education programs, and the university of accreditation make it a logical choice for a partnership in human development.

What Evidence Is There That It Works?

There is virtually no evidence that education **per se** has any effect beyond the measured educational effect of increasing grade levels. Just as there is little evidence that vocational training leads to better employment records, there is no evidence that teaching basic education enhances parole success. Correctional administrators are correct when they raise the point that education of prisoners may just lead to more educated criminals. This is especially important when the education programs are purely technical, career or job-oriented in their content. For something to 'work', it has to get at the root of the problem, in this case the **causes** of people's decisions to commit crimes (not the causes of crime, which is another question). Much of criminal activity is related to a disparity between an individual's **means** or **abilities** and their **desires**, along with a corresponding confusion between **desires** and actual **needs**. The 'means' question, whether literacy or job skills, is important but it cannot be addressed outside the context of a rational approach to life goals, a recognition of the difference between needs and desires, and an appreciation of the ethical dimension of social life.

While a good university education should address all these issues, the results in terms of student behaviour are mixed. In a major study of several United States university level prison education programs of the 1970's grouped under the **Project Newgate** system, "...no consistent differentiation was found between Newgate participants and others on recidivism, achieving stability or realizing life goals." (Seashore, p. 185) In a "college-type" humanities program at Camp Hill prison in Pennsylvania an extensive evaluation found that "...the type of educational programs attended while in prison had no relation to recidivism or employment experience." (Lewis, p. 5) Blumstein's study of another American university program found that it "...improves institutional climate..." and made the students "...more manageable residents..." but that it had no significant effect on recidivism. (1974, p. 75).
On the other hand, from New Mexico we read that, "Among approximately 400 prisoners who attended classes in the College of Santa Fe program inside the New Mexico State Penitentiary from 1967 to 1977, the recidivism rate averaged 15.5%. For the New Mexico prison population as a whole during the same period, the recidivism rate averaged 68%." (**Psychology Today** p. 77)

These figures, coincidentally, match almost exactly the data from the 1980 Follow Up Study of the University of Victoria Program (now the SFU Program). In that study the 16% recidivism rate of the student group was matched by a 50% recidivism rate by a matched group of non-student prisoners. Robert Ross notes of this study, that "Nowhere else in the literature can one find such impressive results with recidivistic adult offenders." (Ross, p. 89) A recent study of the Wilmington College program at the Lebanon Correctional Institution in Ohio shows a recidivism rate of 14% for college students compared to 29% for non-students. Just as important, the study shows an employment rate of almost 70% for the college parolees compared to a 40% average. (**Off Campus**, p. 2) The University of Victoria study likewise showed very high (and steady) employment for the student group.

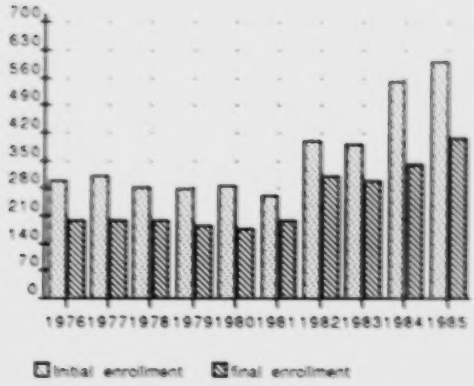
One can make the logical (and common sense) conclusion from this that there are no guarantees. One can also, however, look for any common factors which might account for the success of these programs. An immediate factor which most observers agree upon is that length of time in the program is important. In Glaser's study of prison program effectiveness, he found that "...prison education was statistically related to low recidivism only when the education was extensive and occurred during prolonged confinement." (Lewis, p. 124) This is good news for the CSC, but bad news for provincial counterparts and reinforces the view that there is no "quick fix" to this problem. Forster's study of university education in (1976) British prisons supported Glaser's finding, noting that "...the longer the course was pursued, so did the grip it had upon the inmate's person increase. There was a very sharp contrast between the deliberately off-hand view of the new student and the committed attitude of those who had progressed." (p.22) A visit to any of the SFU Programs in B.C. will confirm this observation and attest to the importance of long-term, in-depth programming.

Perhaps the most important finding in recent years concerning correctional programming is Bob Ross's point made initially in his extensive review of successful prison programs (**Effective Correctional Treatment**) and in his recent **Time to Think** (1985). In the latter he insists that:

> Research on the efficacy of correctional intervention indicates that many programs which incorporate techniques which can broaden the offender's view of the world, improve their ability to comprehend the thoughts and feelings of other people, enhance their reasoning skills and their interpersonal problem-solving skills, and help them to develop alternative interpretations of their social environment have been effective in substantially reducing recidivism among large numbers of juvenile and adult offenders.

Ross has made an important contribution to the debate on corrections and on prison education by making the point in a very convincing manner that prison programs can be effective in changing the post-release behaviour of criminals. The only common denominator he can find in examining these effective programs is that they all try to have an impact on the individual's cognitive development and reasoning ability. Education programs are obviously relevant here and perhaps especially university level programs if, and this is a crucial 'if', they do in fact attempt to address this cognitive development issue.

Finally, the record of prisoner involvement with the program is testimony of some kind to its success. The following chart shows the steady increase in both initial and final enrollments in the University Program from 1976 to the present.



It is important to note that this decade of steadily increasing participation in university studies took place against the backdrop of major prison riots and closures at the B.C. Penitentiary, a major riot at Matsqui Institution, movement to the maximum security Kent Institution, and a series of administrative shake-ups within the CSC. What is most significant about this data is the impressive increase in both initial and final enrollments starting in 1984. After the controversy surrounding the 'cancellation' of the university program in 1983, the transfer from the University of Victoria to Simon Fraser University and especially the imposition of a $20 per course fee, there were many predictions that the program would collapse. It was argued that prisoners would not pay out of their own pockets for university courses. In fact the program became more popular than ever. The students 'voted with their feet' to affirm the value of the university program and, it could be argued, to affirm for us that program did indeed 'work'.

What Does It Cost?

Every correctional program in these times must be accountable for the resources it uses and the SFU Program, through its detailed **Annual Report** and its many public documents, has confronted this issue directly. There are obviously several dimensions to the notion of resources, including most notably staff time, space, and money.

In terms of CSC staff time the SFU Program is a minor consumer, being largely self-sufficient within the prisons and having its own administrative, clerical and accounting staff. Within the prisons served by SFU there is no requirement that CSC security or administrative staff be present in the university area. In many instances SFU staff and senior students volunteer their time to work with CSC and other teachers in the institution with special needs inmates and in other cases SFU staff and students work closely with social development staff. The SFU Resident Coordinator and his/her teaching staff have over the years become valuable quasi-members of the institutional management team - at no direct cost to the CSC.

Space requirements for a University Program are slightly greater than those for other educational programs, though considerably less than those required for vocational/industrial programs. A University Program does require a library, at least two classrooms, at least one office and some room for study facilities. Given the earlier stress put on the notion of establishing an 'educational community' around the university courses, this space/environmental does become an important consideration in institutional planning.

The issue of money is, of course, always contentious and there are many ways of arranging the figures to condemn or to praise. In 1985-86 the total budget for the SFU Program in four institutions was $475,450, roughly the same as it was in 1983-84. That sum includes all salaries, textbooks, administrative costs, travel costs, and university overhead. There are a number of ways of looking at how this money was disbursed:

> During the 1985-86 year there were a total of 822 credit course enrollments in the SFU Prison Education Program - this means that students in the SFU Program registered for and paid fees for 822 slots in the 86 credit courses offered during the year. This comes out to $578 per course enrollment. When the $20 fee each student pays to the CSC per course is deducted this comes to $558 per course enrollment.
>
> If the University Prep non-credit courses and course enrollments are included in this data, there were 1,065 enrollments during 1987-86, which comes to $446 per enrollment or $426 after the deduction of the $20 fee.
>
> During 1985-86 there were a total of 471 men enrolled in the SFU Program either full or part-time. When the total budget is divided by this number the cost per student is $1009 per year. Calculated on the basis of full-time equivalencies only, (382.8 full-time equivalent students during 1985-86) then the cost per year is $1,242.
>
> The total budget of $475,450 resulted in 86 credit courses being offered during 1985-86, an average cost of $5,528/course. (salary costs alone for a 3 credit university course taught by a sessional lecturer average $3400 on campus). If non-credit courses are included, a total of 112 courses were offered for a per course cost of $4,245.

Considering that these costs include travel, books, on-site administration and university overhead and as well all of the additional activities discussed in this report, the University Program in British Columbia seems to be quite responsible in its budgeting.

Conclusion

Eight students released on parole during the summer of 1986 appeared on campus at SFU in September ready to carry on with their academic program. The Prison Education Program staff on campus found part-time work for some of them, assisted with registration and student loan procedures, undertook lay counselling when necessary and offered friendship when needed. The Financial Aid Office, Student Society Office, Registrar, Academic Advice, Counseling Centre and other units of the University likewise played major roles in making these students feel 'at home' at SFU. This happens at the start of each semester. There is in effect a fifth program in the SFU PEP system, the Burnaby program. Increasingly men from the prison program are seeing attendance at SFU as a reasonable way to make a transition to the 'street'. For some of these men the stopover at SFU will be brief as they discover that 'university is not for them', or that they have other more attractive opportunities. Nonetheless, the presence of the 'Burnaby option', with its built in support mechanisms in the form of PEP staff, university faculty who want to help, and a university bureaucracy willing to treat them like all other students could prove for many parolees to be an invaluable bridge between prison and freedom.

Some of the 'graduates' from the prison program are working with volunteer SFU staff at the Carnegie Community Centre in the Downtown Eastside of Vancouver, tutoring people in basic English, teaching a non-credit humanities course, and helping out where needed. Others set aside time on campus to help new arrivals from the prison programs adjust to campus life and the pressures of going to school while on parole. Still others work with volunteer staff in Operation NewStart, a job-finding program for ex-offenders. An informal network of students and ex-students keeps track of each other and tries to intervene when someone is seen to be heading for trouble. Like so many men in prison, these students leave the institutions with a host of good intentions. Unlike so many of their peers who find themselves alone or in bad company after release, these students leave prison with an echo of support behind them and a potential network of support in front of them.

These are all "unintended outcomes" of the University Program in British Columbia. The men who emerge from this program, whether after one course or thirty courses, are without a doubt better positioned to attempt a change of career, re-integrate with family and community, and decide on an appropriate set of values that are most of their peers, whether in prison or out. It is in this sense that the University Program in British Columbia combines Academic Knowledge with Living Skills. The combination works because the program addresses the two key components of any attempt at individual change or development: means and will. Acquiring the skills necessary to change careers will be a wasted effort if the will to change is never addressed. Conversely, inspiring the will and ignoring the means can only lead to disillusionment. For the University students the linkage is made directly in classrooms and in the political environment of the educational community established with the prison.

A prison is by its very nature a less than ideal place in which to hope to foster human transformation or betterment. Nonetheless, we do have evidence that such changes can occur among prisoners if the environment is supportive and, most important, if the peer group is motivated in that direction. One of our more prominent criminologists, Stanley Wilkins, noted the obvious when he said that "...good risks were better risks when concentrated with other good risks, and bad risks were worse when concentrated with bad risks." (in Lewis, p. 35) The University Program specializes in providing motivation, attracts students from both groups and thereby benefits each. At the same time, it infuses its unique culture into the larger prison community and in some measure transforms it as well.

REFERENCES

Blumstein, Alfred. **An Evaluation of A College-Level Program in a Maximum Security Prison**, Carnegie-Mellon University, 1974.

Forster, William. **The High Education of Prisoners**, Dept. of Adult Education, University of Leicester, 1976.

Lewis, Morgan. **Prison Education and Rehabilitation Illusion or Reality?**, Institute for Research on Human Resources, Pennsylvania State University, 1973.

Ross, Robert. "Behavioural Approaches to Treatment in Corrections: Requiem for a Panacea", **Canadian Journal of Criminology**, v.20:2, 1978.

Ross, Robert and Elizabeth Fabiano. **Time To Think: A Cognitive Model of Delinquency Prevention and Offender Rehabilitation**, Institute of Social Sciences and Arts, Johnson City, Tenn., 1985.

Sapsford, R.J. "Life-Sentence Prisoners: Psychological Changes During Sentences", **British Journal of Criminology**, v.18:2, 1978.

Seashore, Marjorie, et.al. **Prisoner Education: Project Newgate and Other College**

Programs. New York-Praeger, 1976.

--------"Learning Maketh the Honest Man", **Psychology Today**, April 1983.

Stehpen Duguid is Director of the Simon Fraser University Prison Education Program.

STATE OF WISCONSIN
DIVISION OF CORRECTIONS
BUREAU OF JUVENILE SERVICES
POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION PILOT PROGRAM

James R. Wickman

This program was conducted by the Wisconsin Division of Corrections Bureau of Juvenile Services. The following is an adaptation of the final report, September, 1980.

INTRODUCTION

During the past 18 months a significant number of students were contacted to enable development of a realistic selection process for accepting students into a post-secondary educational program upon leaving a state juvenile correctional institution in Wisconsin.

The final result should be a more efficient and realistic procedure because the pilot project clearly identified (on a case by case basis) specific criteria to be used in the future.

The purpose of this report is to outline a process and to provide specific recommendations based on the experiences of referred juveniles and those selected for participation in the post-secondary educaiton pilot program after leaving the two state juvenile correctional institutions, Ethan Allen School (EAS) and Lincoln Hills School (LHS).

The post-secondary pilot program was a "way out" to a different and successful lifestyle for selected older institutionalized adjudicated delinquent youth. Success required a major effort by the student and his/her family and a coordination of institution and community support systems including state juvenile correctional institutions staff, aftercare agents, colleges/universities and technical school staff, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation resource persons, and group home personnel.

The pilot program was designed to serve juveniles 16 years, nine months of age or older who possessed the academic and emotional aptitide to succeed in a post-secondary school but not always achieving at an academic or emotional level conducive to success at the time of referral.

The original objectives of the pilot program were:

1. Assist selected youth to perceive and accept long-range values of a post-secondary education.

2. Improve academic skills to enable successful completion of a high school diploma or equivalency and to demonstrate 10th grade competency level in math, reading and writing skills.

3. Pre-register and pre-enroll selected youth in career training at a technical college or local university prior to their leaving the correctional institution.

4. Provide effective monitoring of the youth and the related services during their stay at the institution and in the specialized group homes, e.g., developing post-secondary school linkages between group home and educational institution.

5. Increase potential for student success by strengthening and coordinating institution and community support systems.

6. Involve selected youth in a highly focused and individualized group counseling program, members of each student's family being involved as appropriate, depending upon willingness to participate.

Background

National research on delinquent youth released from state-operated correctional institutions indicate that over 50% of those eligible to receive the benefits of public education do not even enroll. Of those who do enroll, 80% drop out or fail to complete their education within one year of release from the institution. Studies and follow-up interviews clearly document that without direct support in the form of individualized and small group instruction and counseling, youth drop out of educational institutions in much greater proportion than their counterparts in the regular school population. One reason frequently identified for this unusually high drop-out rate is that many become overly dependent on individual and small group support mechanisms available to them in the correctional setting. When such mechanisms are no longer available or not easily accessible, feelings of insecurity or frustration often develop, and the youth tend to return to previous non-acceptable behavior patterns. The temptations toward the immediate gratification of the "street life" also come into play.

Another factor is the unrealistic expectations some of these youth express for placement into educational programs (academic or job training). They overlook such factors as failure to meet entry criteria and appropriate social behavior. These young people are motivated to be economically independent, but they lack realistic or job-related skills to function independently.

As some of these youth attempt to re-enter community life, they rely on their reputation established by being bad enough to do time. Yet, this approach can further isolate or at least consign the youth to the negative behaviors of the past.

Older juveniles who have been adjudicated delinquent and then institutionalized possess very special needs. The pilot program was designed to address those needs through 1) frequent encouragement and counseling to continue their formal education; 2) assessment and instruction (including tutorial services) to develop increased achievement levels in math, reading, and writing skills; 3) pre-registering and pre-enrolling the student for post-secondary school while at the institution; 4) career training at post-secondary school emphasizing classroom or formal skill training for specific jobs; 5) effective control, structure, and monitoring of juveniles at correctional institution, group home, and community education setting; and 6) youth advocacy consisting of personal counseling, intervention, follow-up, and daily contact by staff at the group home and post-secondary school setting.

Achievement at a 10th grade level in math, reading, and writing or possessing the potential to do so is necessary for youth to be successful in a post-secondary setting. A number of older juveniles in state correctional institutions are achieving below that level. They are in need of one of the oldest and most effective techniques used in education, viz., the tutorial model within the institution, group home, and at the post-secondary setting.

A staff person at a group home must assist youth to develop a more rational understanding of the relationship among their interests, skills, abilities, performance, etc. This staff person must also be the liaison or linkage with the post-secondary school contact person, e.g., follow-up, attendance monitoring, etc.

Realistic Outcomes

Expectations must include progress toward re-entering society in terms of achievement, attitude, and behavior as related to continuation of formal education at a post-secondary school. Focus will be placed on a career vocation.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

Development of and piloting a post-secondary school project for selected older youth leaving EAS and LHS required significantly more staff time than originally estimated. The strategy of working with students individually was very time consuming but effective. A case-by-case approach provided the opportunity to "walk" each referred student through the process and to identify many program needs such as the development of effective procedures and the establishment of working relationships with various agencies (state university and vocational technical systems, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, Division of Corrections, alternate care agencies, etc.).

The individualized approach used in the pilot project met a primary need area for students, viz., intensive one-on-one relationships requiring counseling, e.g., saying "no" to inappropriate peer pressures, developing different lifestyles, understanding the clash of conflicting value systems and related stress, career awareness, etc. Time was also made available to provide required family counseling sessions to develop structure and support within the student's home.

The student referral process differed between the two institutions. LHS referrals tend to be submitted by the Juvenile Offender Review Board; EAS referrals tend to be submitted by individual social workers. When referrals were received, a review of the student's educational and social service file was completed. Also, each student and appropriate institution personnel were contacted to obtain an approximation of the student's general academic aptitude, commitment to the program and overall behavior.

Students interested in attending the University of Wisconsin system were referred to the various departments of educational opportunity. Students from EAS were almost always personally transported tot the Department of Educational Opportunity at the Milwaukee campus for screening, individual interviews, and testing. They experienced a four-step method for admission: 1) complete application; 2) participate in personal interviews; 3) receive committee review; and 4) be considered for an alternative process if the Admissions Committee review did not result in a traditional admissions process. Completion and submittal of the financial aid form occurred at this time. All of the above were implemented while the student was a resident of the juvenile correctional institution and after having completed a high school diploma or achieved GED equivalency.

The pilot project at LHS was a cooperative effort between the Division of Corrections and Northland Group Home located at Wausau. Northland was able to provide a specialized program for post-secondary youth who were leaving LHS and had planned to attend the University of Wisconsin--Marathon or North Central Technical Institute at Wausau. At the present time, a specialized group home in the Milwaukee area is yet to be developed. Private agencies are very enthusiastic about the concept; however, they indicate the financial risk to be too great, e.g., start-up funds, financial commitment to staff, purchase or rent of the physical facility, and cost of equipment and materials. The basic problem is the inability of the Division of Corrections to provide a bed subsidy. Currently, group homes can be reimbursed only for beds actually occupied on a daily basis.

Targeted Youth

To qualify for this program, candidates had to: 1) lack almost all but very basic or rudimentary job-related skills; 2) possess a high school diploma or completed equivalency or demonstrate potential to do so; 3) demonstrate aptitude or potential to achieve at a 10th grade level in math, reading, and writing skills; 4) be 16 years, nine months of age or older; 5) be adjudicated delinquent; 6) be committed to EAS or LHS; and 7) have potential to be placed in a specialized group home after leaving the institution. In some instances these youth had to be identified and actively recruited using non-traditional intellectual and leadership skills sometimes not identified by traditional assessment instruments.

The profile of selected juveniles was one of young people poised on the brink of entry into an adult world but being totally unprepared to cope effectively with it. H. G. Wells summarized this type of youth most accurately in 1920: "Human history becomes more and more a race between education and disaster."

Necessary Partnership

Due to the severity of need, this program had to be operational on a system wide basis when the juvenile was identified. The program actually began at that time and continued throughout the institution and group home experience, including the post-secondary school setting.

Juveniles involved in the program require advocates within the correctional institution, group home facility, Division of Corrections Central Office, area technical college or local university, and community social service agencies. All must work together in a coordinated effort. Without advocates who know the system and are able to open necessary doors, these young men and women will have little chance for successful transition. They need advocates who can assist them to enter the post-secondary educational system because they themselves lack the know how. Placing juveniles into a supportive setting that meets their needs and enables them to remain in the community will yield benefits to both the individual and society as a whole.

Funding

Funding for the correctional component for selected juveniles is available.

Financial aides: The majority of juveniles leaving state correctional institutions in Wisconsin are eligible for aid to continue post-secondary education. Grants, work-study programs, and guaranteed student loans have been used in the past for certain juveniles attending technical schools or universities. Aid is awarded on the basis of need, i.e., the difference between a student's or parent's ability to pay and the students' actual cost of an education (tuition, fees, room, board, books, etc.). Students are required to complete a financial aid form (FAF).

Division of Vocational Rehabilitation: DVR clients must have a physical or mental handicap which presents a substantial obstacle to employment, and there must be a reasonable expectation that DVR services will assist that person to gain employment. DVR can provide the following services, depending on the client and the availability of funds:

a. Medical and psychological evaluation
b. Comprehensive vocational evaluation
c. Counseling and guidance for vocational and personal adjustment areas
d. Job-seeking skills
e. Job placement assistance
f. Occupational licenses, tools, equipment, and supplies
g. Transportation and some maintenance during participation in evaluation and training or work adjustment
h. Short-term skill building
i. Training and education at the University of Wisconsin or vocational technical schools
j. Physical restoration

Susan M. Olive, DVR Counselor, who works part time at EAS, noted that a significant number of juveniles at EAS are eligible for DVR services.

Other sources of obtaining funds for educational purposes may be those similar to the Talent Incentive Program (TIP); a grant designed to aid the non-traditional and disadvantaged student who has a high financial aid need. Under this program the State Department of Public Instruction's Division of Educational Opportunity awards up to $1,800 to first-year college students as a loan and/or work study aid that might have been awarded by educational institutions to complete the student's grant/award package. Students selected for TIP may be entitled to one additional year of eligibility, providing they successfully complete their freshman year.

TOPP students must first be enrolled in TEP or CSC: Scholarships of up to $500 per semester for somestate VTAE systems are available. No client shall receive more than $2,000 for the completion of a four semester degree program. Assistance beyond one semester requires the client to maintain at least a 2.0 GPA on a four point scale. An incomplete may jeopardize further scholarship funds.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Potential students should be referred as soon as possible after admission and permanent status is determined within the correctional institution.

The pilot project clearly documented a need to determine time lines for student referrals if "every base is to be touched" to assure the students would be provided with the best scenario for success. The following time lines were relevant in the pilot project:

Fall Semester attendance (September)
Last date for referring students - May 15

Summer school attendance (June)
Last date for referring students - February 15

Spring semester attendance (January)
Last date for referring students - September 15

Referrals accepted after the above dates can be expedited to enable attendance at a post-secondary institution. The mechanical aspects of financial aids, application for admission, and enrollment in classes may be completed but there is insufficient time to develop a support/counseling relationship with the student. Admissions testing will be late, on site registration will be required, financial aid checks will be delayed requiring more meetings to obtain delayed tuition and other fee payments and students loans will be needed to purchase books and other supplies. The student has enough of a burden and should not have to cope with additional frustrations which could be the "straw that breaks the camel's back." **Early referral must be a major priority.**

a. The following persons should be present at the time the juvenile is identified and selected: representatives of the juvenile institution, Juvenile Offender Review Program, community agent, the juvenile's family member or guardian, and the juvenile. Division of Vocational Rehabilitation involvement will be needed.

b. Participants should establish involvement, effective communication, and program goals at that time.

The entire referral process must be a coordinated effort. Individual staff may do "their own thing" in terms of selecting or referring students for the post-secondary educational program, but the referral process within the institutional setting must be the same. Individual staff persons must not create their own process, as that would result in much confusion. Students must also be made aware of the referral process to enable them to become involved in post-secondary programs. This information should be

made available to the student in terms of what staff person(s) they contact, e.g., social worker, teacher, guidance counselor or institutional staff person(s) designated as the post-secondary education representative.

To maximize effectiveness of the post-secondary education program, a significant amount of staff time must be made available on an individualized basis to establish a working relationship with student referrals. Time is necessary for staff to counsel with the potential post-secondary student and "walk them through the process." Students who successfully complete the final selection process are academically capable, however they must also overcome major emotional barriers relative to self confidence. Some feel threatened by educational institutions. Others have failed in that type of environment for many years and possess significant apprehension. All will have to accept a different lifestyle, self concept, and value system, viz., college student versus delinquent/street life. This is an additional burden requiring a mature and skilled staff person who must effectively counsel the students and provide assistance to enable them to overcome personality deficits. **Unless this staff component is present during the initial stages of student referral and selection, the program will fail.**

Students must be involved in individual and group counseling programs at the institution; their family members being encouraged to participate. When a family is willing to participate, a major goal must be to have its members understand the program objectives and to support the juvenile's participation. This could include a formal agreement to work with program staff, attend workshops, encourage the juvenile, etc. The potential exists for a juvenile enrolled in the program to become better trained and more economically mobile than his/her family. This could be threatening for family members and the involved juvenile, especially if the job market requires the trained person to leave the area.

Students with a history of alcohol and drug abuse should not be accepted into the post-secondary program unless they have successfully completed a primary ACDA program within the institutional setting or in the community after being released from the institution. For those who have not successfully completed a primary ACDA program in either of those settings, the potential for their being successful in the post-secondary educational program is minimal.

The DVR case worker must be involved as soon as possible after referral occurs. Placement of a part-time DVR counselor at EAS has made cooperative planning possible.

The appropriate Juvenile Service Agent must be contacted and informed of the potential post-secondary interest by the student. To date, meaningful cooperation has been received from both state and county aftercare agents.

The juvenile correctional institutions must assign selected youth to educational programs emphasizing GED or high school diploma completions; math, reading, and writing skill development classes; and career awareness programs encompassing job maturity, living skills, etc. Students who complete a GED or high school diploma must also demonstrate competency in reading, writing, and mathematic skills in the 9-10th grade level before their educational program terminates. Too frequently, students who score at the lower passing levels (225-250) on the GED test are permitted to terminate their educational programs within the institutional setting. Unfortunately, experience indicates that persons with such scores have almost no potential for success in the real world.

There is a primary need for identified post-secondary students to be able to complete some first semester college credit courses (English, communications, psychology, economics, mathematics, etc.), transferable to colleges, universities of technical schools while at LHS or EAS.

Education and treatment goals for selected juveniles must be measurable and explicitly defined while at the institution. Information relating to the student's progress or lack of

progress in the goal areas must be shared with all involved persons (post-secondary school, group home, aftercare agent, DVR counselor, student and family, institution staff, social service worker, and educational staff). It must also be entered in the student's education and social services file in a timely manner.

All paper work necessary for entrance into post-secondary schools should be completed at the institution before the student leaves. Included should be such items as financial aid forms, enrollment and registration forms, and school transcripts. The post-secondary school will thus be enabled todiagnose and identify academic strengths and weaknessess and to provide specific diagnostic information to the juvenile correctional institution. The institution education program would then in turn be enabled to address those areas while the student is a resident at the correctional institution. Students must also have opportunities to visit post-secondary schools prior to leaving the institution to familiarize themselves with staff and available support services.

As noted above, campus visits should be made while the student is an institution resident to resolve possible problem areas prior to institution release, e.g., obtaining financial aids, completing the traditional admissions process or utilization of the non-traditional admissions process. Students should, as appropriate, also visit the Office of Black Student Advising or the Office of Native American Advising. Further, the students should be transported for diagnostic testing and assignment of student or staff mentors.

Students should be involved in a learning skills laboratory on campus prior to actual attendance in formalized classes. Students should also practice completing standardized tests before actually taking tests; practice tests will improve scores. Such activities compromise an effective method of preparing a student for college attendance and initiating "how to study" skills.

Selected juveniles may benefit from signing formal agreements that they understand the program and will meet specific goals (be on time for class, do assignments, improve academic skills, abide by rules, cooperatively work with program staff, etc.). They must play a major role in establishing goals and developing individualized overall plans.

Group home staff must monitor each student's time and behavior on a daily basis to assure minimal failures resulting from lack of attendance or neglect in completing assignments. Daily monitoring is necessary to reduce the possibilities for students to "slip through the cracks." Juveniles involved in this program must be exposed to and recognize successful experiences such as the following, immediately upon leaving the institution; meaningful involvement in group home living and school attendance (technical school or local university) full time or combined with a part time job.

The original post-secondary education program concept was designed such that specialized group homes would be developed for older selected youth leaving LHS and EAS. Fiscal realities, as described previously in this report, changed that concept. Nonetheless a specialized group home designed specifically for these types of youth is strongly recommended. If it were possible for the Division of Corrections to operate such a group home on a pilot basis in Milwaukee the success ratio would be higher.

Delinquent youth tend to respond positively to programs that are able to provide consistent monitoring and structure including a quick response to both positive and negative behavior patterns demonstrated by the youth.

Former students attending post-secondary schools should be encouraged to return to EAS and LHS to talk with prospective students; perhaps financial remuneration could be provided. The "I made it" approach by former students should be an effective method of recruitment.

This project should be expanded to include more students than were involved in the pilot program; however, other staff positions would be needed to work in the program. It is not possible to effectively

monitor or supervise this type of program from the Central Office. A more practical approach would be to assign a staff person in the Regional Juvenile Service Unit to work with EAS referrals. It is strongly recommended that the staff person(s) not be from the institutions to avoid possible role conflicts between institution and post-institution program objective.

Selected Case Studies

STUDENT #1 H.W. Referred July 1985 by his LHS social worker and Juvenile Offender Review Program. During the time span from July 1985 to January 1986, I conducted numerous counseling sessions with this student. We visited a group home in Wausau, visited the University of Wisconsin-Marathon, completed financial aid forms, and completed applications for admission and class financial aid forms, and completed applications for admission and class schedule. It should be noted that H. W. completed his GED at LHS with a score of 301.

Counseling sessions consisted of providing information and support relative to H.W.'s future plans. This young man is a very intelligent and capable person who was apprehensive about post-secondary programs. The group home in Wausau, to which this young man was assigned, designated one staff person as a liaison with the University of Wisconsin-Marathon and my office. This arrangement provided for an efficient line of communication. Response time was almost immediate whenever there was a concern or a problem.

He was on county aftercare status, the county considering placing H.W. on independent status in the college dorm rather than in a group home. I discussed this at length with H.W. who felt the plan to be premature. I indicated H.W. should verbalize his concern to the judge during his extension hearing, which he did. He also summarized his adjustment at the university and at the group home. The judge agreed to was premature for the county to think of placing him on independent status and continued placement at the group home.

H.W. was place on independent status during the summer of 1986. The county chose to provide H.W. with a $500 monthly stipend to pay for his living costs in the Wausau area rather than paying the $2022 monthly cost of the group home placement. I questioned this decision by the county as H.W. was not prepared for independent living due to his emotional needs and very serious committing offense.

H.W. found an apartment in the Wausau area, he is currently attending his second semester of classes at UW-Marathon campus and has a part-time job.

H.W. continues to maintain contact with the Northland Group Home staff which is a very effective tactic in that he receives common sense advice and support from the staff who worked with him. I visit with H.W. approximately once per month, "rapping" about education in general and whatever in specific is appropriate. During our most recent meeting I sensed H.W. was beginning to deteriorate in terms of class attendance and performance. I don't think he is able to cope with the responsibilities of independent living. His county aftercare agent has been notified.

It should be noted his county raised the issue of the $500 monthly stipend feeling that H.W.'s financial aid package at college was adequate and that the county could reduce the $500 stipend. H.W. said that he felt like an item in a business exchange rather than a person. If county pursues that approach H.W. plans to contact public defender's office.

STUDENT #2 D.K. Referred by social worker at EAS in July 1985. D.K. had completed his GED (265) prior to EAS admission. His EAS social worker, county aftercare worker, and I worked with D.K. in terms of planning for future enrollment at the Waukesha County Technical Institute (WCTI) in September 1985. However, when an opening in the robotics program became available during the summer of 1985, both his county and EAS social workers felt D.K. should be enrolled at that time and attend WCTI while at EAS. The plan was for him to continue schooling on an independent living status when he was released from

EAS. I transported D.K. to WCTI, helped him to complete financial aid forms, admissions procedures, and class schedule on a Friday. He began classes the following Monday while at EAS.

D.K. was released on aftercare, and his county social worker established him in an apartment in Waukesha (independent living). D.K. did extremely well in school. His attitude and grades were very good, and he reestablished positive relationships with his parents. His EAS social worker and county aftercare worker put forth much effort and encouragement in terms of supporting him in the program.

In February of 1986, D.K. was with his girlfriend in an automobile when an oncoming car driven by an intoxicated driver crossed the center line and struck D.K.'s car head on. The result was that D.K.'s girlfriend was killed, the intoxicated driver was killed, and D.K. was in a coma and had to undergo brain surgery to relieve pressure. As of this date D.K. continues to be in a coma, and his prognosis for living is guarded. His prognosis for brain damage if he lives is very high.

It has been a difficult situation for his county social worker, EAS social worker, and me because we get quite close to students involved in these types of projects. This was especially difficult as we sensed this young man had decided to make major changes in his life.

STUDENT #3: T.T. Referred by EAS social worker November 1985. Completed GED at EAS (253). T.T. verbalized a desire to continue his education from the first day I met him. Since November 1985, I have been seeing T.T. regularly. He currently has been released on aftercare from EAS and is living at home with his mother. I assisted T.T. in submitting his financial aid form and completing the admissions process at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. I also worked with the DVR counselor as T.T.'s case is a cooperative effort between the Division of Corrections, UW-Milwaukee, and DVR.

I took T.T. to the UW-Milwaukee campus to visit the Office of Educational Opportunity and Black Student Advising. T.T. was enrolled in a university academic skills laboratory during the spring of 1986. He was then enrolled in a four-week summer school pre-college skills laboratory on campus. T.T. was successful in that phase of the program and began full-time, on-campus schooling in September 1986.

T.T.'s financial aid package was on time, he paid his tuition and other fees, enrolled in classes, purchased his books, and at the present time, seems to be doing quite well. I continue to be optimistic that this young man will be a success and shall continue to monitor his performance through weekly contacts.

STUDENT #4: M.S. Referred by EAS social worker in March 1986. M.S. is a difficult case; he has been a ward of the State since about five years of age. He does not know his father and has not seen his mother in more than a year; her whereabouts are unknown. He has a sister, whose whereabouts change frequently.

M.S. is a 17-year old youth who is 6'8" tall and growing. Because he possesses basketball skills and probably could play Division 2 or Division 3 college basketball, I am using this as an incentive. I have contacted the UW-Milwaukee men's basketball coach who is interested in M.S.

M.S. is a very guarded and suspicious young man; however, his file contains information that clarifies the reasons. He basically perceives the world as a very negative environment, thus giving rise to a high degree of distrust and hostility. I am beginning to establish a relationship with him and plan to continue to monitor, encourage, and support him when I am at EAS.

I transported M.S. to UW-M campus in August 1986 for additional basic skills testing. He tested between an 8th and 9th grade level in the academic skill areas. The committee who reviewed his application for admission recommended that M.S. attend the Milwaukee Area Technical College first semester (academic skill building classes) and then enroll at UW-M in January 1987. The committee felt that M.S. would be in a very high-risk group if he were to attend UW-M in September 1986. M.S. reported to MATC for additional testing, and the results of those tests were not as high as his tests at UW-M. I'm not surprised as I worked

with M.S. intensely to prepare him for the tests at UW-M. The classes he needed at MATC were filled. As a result, he cannot start classes until January.

It is probably a blessing in disguise because M.S. is very concerned about the status of his 19-year old sister who is a single parent seemingly experiencing severe emotional problems. His mother, with whom he's had very little contact, is also having problems and M.S. feels "his family" needs him. He is the only male and feels he must assume responsibilities for his sister and mother. I have counseled with M.S. numerous times in that his first priority is to himself, e.g., he should not feel overly responsible for something that is too "out of control" for him at this time in his life. his decision at the present time is to delay going to college until September of 1987.

If he is able to enroll in basic academic classes at MATC in January he then would be better prepared to attend college in September of 1987 when he would be 18 years of age. We are also exploring the possibility of M.S. attending college out of the Milwaukee area because of the number of distractions that exist in Milwaukee. He is currently working and living at the Transcenter Group Home in Milwaukee.

M.S. continues to be a very high-risk youth in the program. He is not as guarded and suspicious as in the past. I sense an ongoing struggle within him as to whether he wants to identify with the street life or college environment. The street life is more emotionally secure for him because college is a situation thjat is threatening. If he continues to receive support and supervision within the Transcenter Group Home setting and is able to find a full-time job until January, the potential for him to be successful still exists. However he will have to work extremely hard if he wants a post-secondary education program, including college basketball, to become a reality.

STUDENT #5 K.R. Referred by EAS Superintendent in July 1986. K.R. completed GED at EAS with a score of 290 and verbalized a desire to attend the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. During the first interview, his application form to the university and his financial aid form were completed and mailed.

I transported K.R. to the UW-M campus to visit with staff. we also contacted the New Horizon Alternate Care Facility in Milwaukee relative to tentative placement for K.R. upon release from EAS. We went to the UW campus in late August and we waited in various lines to complete his application for admission, enroll in specific classes, pay fees, buy books, obtain a student loan, etc. K.R. was frustrated and amazed that individuals had to stand in line in order to obtain an education. K.R. said that if he had to "stand in line" on his own he would have left campus and not enrolled.

During September 1986, I arranged for K.R. at the Financial Aids Office to obtain a deferred tuition payment plan since his financial aid grant will not arrive by the beginning of fall semester. The deferred tuition payment plan was approved. I was also able to obtain a student loan for him so he could purchase books. At the present time, K.R. is on campus attending classes. I plan to continue to monitor his performance on campus and talk with him approximately once a week. K.R. is an unusual case in that he was referred at a very late date; however, his high GED score enabled bypass of some of the time-consuming admissions procedures required of the non-traditional method of admission.

K.R. was referred to the Department of Educational Opportunity at the UW-Milwaukee. He needs support and monitoring that department will provide on campus if he is to be successful.

STUDENT #6 B.V. Referred by the Juvenile Offender Review Program and his foundry instructor at LHS, B.V. completed his GED at LHS(263) and was involved in the foundry program as a student assistant for an extended period of time. His instructor encouraged B.V. to explore the possibility of post-secondary training in this area and as a result he was referred as a possible post-secondary education student with a tentative plan to enroll in the Milwaukee Area Technical College (18 week foundry course) beginning in September of 1986.

I began working with B.V. in May; we submitted his application for admission to MATC and his financial aid

form. The LHS instructor has contacts at MATC which we used to get B.V. admitted into the foundry program for September 1986. B.V. was released from Lincoln and was at the Renewal Group Home in Baraboo in an attempt for him to work and save some money so in mid-August, he could transfer to a group home in Milwaukee that was accessible to the Milwaukee Area Technical College.

B.V.'s adjustment at LHS was excellent, his initial adjustment at the Renewal Group Home was good, however he had some problems with the use of drugs on a furlough.

B.V. had an extensive history of drug abuse; this had been discussed with him numerous times in terms of where his priorities were relative to utilization of drugs versus obtaining a post-secondary education. In June I visited with his county agent. B.V. had agreed to be extended so he could continue to receive services from the county in order to pay for the cost of the group home in the Milwaukee area.

During one of our many conversations about drugs B.V. verbalized he planned to continue his drug habit as he "could use drugs, maintain control of his personal life and still be able to go to college." During this particular discussion we were on our way to Milwaukee to visit various alternate care facilities, I proceeded to stop the car, pull over to the side of the road and told B.V. if those were his priorities we were wasting his time and mine. I also told him he was idealistic to think he could utilize drugs, maintain control of his personal life and pursue a post-secondary education. I explained to B.V. that every student I had worked with in this project, who had a history of drug abuse and felt as he did, ultimately were controlled by drugs and failed in the post-secondary education program.

Plans were being made for B.V. to live at an alternate care facility in the Milwaukee area so he could attend MATC; his county notified B.V. they were not going to pay for the cost of his aftercare in the Milwaukee area, even though this had been a part of the extension plan. A number of phone calls were made to the county by Division of Corrections staff and the Juvenile Offender Review Program staff; the county "had a change of heart" and stated they would pay aftercare costs for B.V. from mid-August through January so he could complete the foundry training program. I visited the Renewal Group Home in August to discuss the specifics with B.V., the county agent, and the Renewal Group Home staff. At that time B.V. stated he would not stay at an alternate care facility in Milwaukee but wanted to be placed on independent status and then attend MATC. We explained to B.V. that he was not in any position to rent an apartment for four months when in fact, after much persuasion, the county had agreed to pay all of those costs so he could complete the post-secondary training program. B.V. was adamant and stated he would refuse an alternate care placement in Milwaukee. B.V. wanted to continue involvement in the drug culture and by being placed on independent status in the Milwaukee area he could get involved more quickly. I confronted B.V. and told him that's what I was hearing him say and if, in fact, that was his plan I could not support him in the post-secondary education program. The discussion took place on a Friday and I encouraged B.V. to think about it and not make any decisions until the following Monday. On the following Monday B.V. continued to be adamant he would refuse placement in an alternate care facility in the Milwaukee area. His county agent stated if that was B.V.'s final decision the county was going to terminate juvenile jurisdiction and he would be totally on his own.

B.V.'s behavior deteriorated very rapidly at the group home shortly after that discussion. He went on furlough to the Milwaukee area to talk to his grandmother about living with her and attending MATC. It is my understanding the grandmother refused B.V.'s request and B.V. "lost his cool." His status at this time is not known as he is AWOL. It is speculated B.V. is involved with drugs and probably will be in contact with law agencies in the very near future.

STUDENT #7 F.P. Although F.P. was not a post-secondary pilot project student, her situation was unique. Therefore I have included her case summary. F.P. completed her GED at Lincoln Hills School (229). She is a very sophisticated and street-wise female from the Milwaukee area with a history of prostitution. The LHS cottage treatment team's plan for F.P. was for her to attend Nicolet College (Rhinelander) for the spring semester and summer school in 1986. Upon successful completion to that phase of the program, she would be enrolled at the Madison Area Technical College for the fall semester

of 1986. The plan was simple and straightforward in that staff at LHS wanted F.P. to remain out of the Milwaukee area through July/August of 1986 and then go directly to Madison to attend the technical school in that city. The team requested my assistance in terms of financial aid forms and application for admission. I talked with F.P. three times, the first contact being approximately two weeks before release on aftercare. The second took place approximately two days before she was to begin classes at Nicolet College. The third took place at Nicolet College when I assisted her in completing the financial aid form and application for admission to the Madison Area Technical College for September 1986.

During my contacts with F.P., we talked about what she wanted to do with her life. It was quite evident that she had made no commitment to stay away from prostitution. In fact, she tended to glorify prostitution, e.g., made her feel good, opportunity to meet a lot of people, very exciting, etc. The plan for her to attend Nicolet College was practical; however, it was difficult for F.P. because she felt isolated as a Black student from urban Milwaukee. I discussed that type of living situation with her and encouraged her to utilize various support systems available at Nicolet College.

Initially, F.P. did quite well at Nicolet; she attended classes and seemed to be putting forth effort. Approximately one month into the program, F.P. began a pattern of weekend visits to the Milwaukee area. I felt F.P. was making plans with her pimp in terms of leaving the Nicolet College setting. After I shared this information with her agent and staff team at Lincoln, monitoring of her whereabouts was implemented. Shortly after her 18th birthday, F.P. left Nicolet College and never returned. Her whereabouts at this time are unknown.

This case clearly indicates the difficulty of working with older female residents who are sophisticated and "street-wise." The psychological factors of the pimp/hooker relationship are very strong, especially when the female resident perceives prostitution as something exciting and glamorous, and which makes them feel good about themselves.

F.P.'s release plan was an opportunity for her to change her life-style. She probably chose not to follow it because prostitution, in her value system, was a preferred alternative.

CLOSING OBSERVATIONS

The post-secondary pilot project documented an increasing tendency by too many counties to terminate juvenile jurisdiction prematurely primarily to reduce budget costs, an understandable fiscal concern. However, continuation of jurisdiction, fiscal support and services/supervision are especially needed during the critical transition period. Sacrificing future gains for the youth in order to meet current local funding concerns results in a situation that is counterproductive for older juveniles leaving state correction institutions. They desperately need support services to help them achieve successful reintegration into the community.

DEFINITIONS

ACT	American College Testing
BJS	Bureau of Juvenile Services
CSC	Community Service Corps
DEO	Department of Educational Opportunity - University of Wisconsin System
DHSS	Department of Health and Social Services - State of Wisconsin
DOC	Division of Corrections - State of Wisconsin
DVR	Division of Vocational Rehabilitation - State of Wisconsin
EAS	Ethan Allan School - State Juvenile Correctional Institution
FAF	Financial Aid Form
GED	General Education Development Test
GPA	Grade Point
JORP	Juvenile Offender Review Program
LHS	Lincoln Hills School - State Juvenile Correctional Institution
MATC	Milwaukee Area Technical College
OBSA	Office of Black Student Advising - University of Wisconsin System
ONAA	Office of Native American Advising - University of Wisconsin System
SAT	Scholastic Aptitude Test
TEP	Transitional Employment Program
TIP	Talent Incentive Program
TOPP	Training Offenders for Placement Project
UWM	University of Wisconsin/Milwaukee
VTAE	Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education System

POST SECONDARY CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION: AN EVALUATION OF PAROLEE PERFORMANCE

Jerry Holloway
Paul Moke

INTRODUCTION

American prison administrators, like their counterparts in Canada and Western Europe, often rely upon academic and vocational programming as a means of rehabilitating offenders. The customary justification for this practice, as articulated by penologists, educators, and public figures, is that such programs facilitate the successful reintegration of offenders through the enhancement of favorable self-concepts and marketable employment skills. This position receives support from the fact that ninety-five percent of all offenders currently behind bars will eventually be returned to society. Use of public monies for these purposes, however, is not without controversy. Legislators and public critics, concerned about the efficacy of rehabilitation programs, argue there is no evidence that correctional education leads to reductions in recidivism rates among inmate-students.

Indeed, much of the early literature supports this position. Perhaps the most definitive study on this point is Martinson's survey of six academic and vocational programs for adult male offenders between 1948 and 1965 (Martinson, 1974). Martinson concluded that recidivism was unaffected by academic attainment. His analysis indicated four possible reasons for this outcome: first, that educational programs were irrelevant to life outside prison; secondly, that most such programs used obsolete equipment and techniques; thirdly, that such programs could not reverse the adverse impact of incarceration; and finally, that educational attainment was often completely irrelevant to the reasons for an offender's criminal lifestyle. Other research projects reaching similar conclusions include studies by the California Department of Corrections Research Division (Greenberg, 1974; Spencer and Berecochea, 1971), studies of juvenile delinquents (Ziven, 1966), studies of skill development programs (Jacobson, 1965), and studies of academic and vocational programs in jails (Kettering, 1972).

The vast majority of the recidivism studies used in Martinson's study concerned vocational, high school, and adult basic education programs rather than college programs. Arguably, differences in skills development, attitude, and value structure in a collegiate setting distinguish college programs from vocational and secondary schools. For example, unpublished studies of recidivism among college level inmate-students conducted by Alexander City State Junior College (Alabama), the Texas Department of Corrections, and the Hagerstown Junior College (Maryland), show college students recidivate at lower rates than their non-college counterparts. Presumably, these studies did not use randomized, experimental methods in comparing inmate-students with the general inmate population, and therefore, they may not be methodologically sound. Nevertheless, the recidivism studies of post-secondary prison education programs at least suggest that a link between higher education and reduced recidivism exists.

Using experimental methods that comply with generally accepted social science standards, researchers have documented relationships between recidivism and a myriad of other social and structural factors apart from participation in educational programs. One study concluded that recidivism is affected by parole placement (Phannenstiel, 1979), while others noted significant relationships between recidivism and family involvements. (Wolf, 1981; Thompson, 1981). Most of this research stands for the proposition that recidivism is a crude measure of program success. Apart from involvement in treatment programming, a variety of other factors affect recidivism rates. Wolf (1981) reported that there are no consistent definitions or operationalizations in recidivism research, while others have noted the impact of age, family stability, demographics of parolee placement, incidence of substance abuse, and criminal involvements of family and peer group members, among others, on recidivism rates.

THE STUDY

The absence of a strong relationship between education and recidivism should not, however, end the inquiry. For if broader conceptions of successful reintegration are used, a more realistic measure of program effectiveness becomes possible. Instead of focusing exclusively on recidivism, other indicia of success, such as employment on parole, and remaining arrest-free, when combined with recidivism data, provide a more complete picture of what occurs to students when they leave prison. Adoption of broader conceptions of successful reintegration may, for example, establish linkages **between** educational attainment and employability on parole that will, in turn, explain more clearly the role of education in helping offenders to go straight. Studies have documented the relationship between offender unemployment and return to prison (National Institute of Justice, 1981); is it therefore fruitful to explore a chain of argument linking education to employment and employment to successful reintegration?

In order to answer this question, three hundred residents of Lebanon Correctional Institution in Lebanon, Ohio, a medium security prison for adults under thirty, were studied. The intent of the study was to follow up on the offenders one year after their release on parole to determine if participation in college affected their post-release behavior. Ninety-five of these offenders received associate degrees while in prison. These persons were compared with two groups: one hundred sixteen offenders at Lebanon who received high school degrees and one hundred six who were high school dropouts. The offenders included in this study left prison between January 1, 1982 and October 1, 1983, and each spent a minimum of one year on parole.

The hypothesis of the study, that those offenders who earned associated degrees would be more successful in their reintegration than their non-graduate counterparts, was measured by means of records at the Ohio Adult Parole Authority. "Successful reintegration" was operationalized as not returning to prison within the first year on parole. Thus, for purposes of discussion in this paper, recidivism is defined as return to prison either by reason of conviction for a new offense or through parole violations. Additional indicia of success included remaining arrest free for this period and being employed on a full-time basis during the first year of release.

During the design of the study, researchers noted that ethical considerations played a key role in determining the methodology that would be used. The strongest test of the hypothesis would be an experimental design whereby an experimental group would be placed in the associate degree program and a control group would be excluded. Such a design, however, contemplated that members of the control group, who would otherwise be qualified and eligible for admission, would be denied access to college.

In view of this consideration, a quasi-experimental design was adopted in which a control group was selected from those inmates who had expressed an interest in being admitted to college. In order to reduce the impact of the program on the control group, the population selected attended no more than two quarters of college. Indeed, half of the control group did not attend college at all. A time frame was selected so all persons were paroled during approximately the same period of time and all would complete a minumum of one year on parole. With these operational definitions in place, the three comparison groups were identified.

SUBJECTS

The first group consisted of every graduate of the associate program who was paroled during a twenty-one month period during 1982 and 1983. Due to the relatively small number of persons who met these criteria no sample was drawn, and the entire population of 95 inmates was selected for study. A random sample of 116 high school graduates was selected as the quasi-control group for the study. Persons in this group either earned a high school degree or received a G.E.D. outside prison or within the institution. For purposes of comparison, a third group of 106 persons was drawn from the general population of those inmates reporting no high school diploma or G.E.D. certificate, who were paroled during the time frame of

the study. For purposes of clarification, the three comparison groups are identified below:

GROUP I N=95
Inmate-Students who graduated from an associate degree prison program and were paroled during 1982 and 1983.

GROUP II N=116
Inmates who had a high school diploma or a GED certificate and attended no more than 2 quarters of the associate degree program and were paroled during 1982 and 1983.

GROUP III N=106
Inmates in the general prison population who reported no high school diploma or GED certificate and had no contact with the associate degree program and were paroled during 1982 - 1983.

FINDINGS

PRE-PRISON VARIABLES

An examination of the pre-prison backgrounds of the three comparison groups was undertaken to determine if their experiences were substantially similar. This data is reported in TABLE I.

TABLE I: PRE-PRISON BACKGROUNDS OF COMPARISON GROUPS

Variable	Group I N=95	Group II N=116	Group III N=106
		Prior Juvenile Incarcerations	
0	76 (80)	89 (76.7)	60 (56.6)
1	15 (15.8)	11 (9.5)	17 (16)
>1	4 (4.2)	16 (13.8)	29 (27.4)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)
		Prior Adult Incarcerations	
0	80 (84.2)	91 (78.4)	72 (67.9)
≥1	15 (15.8)	25 (21.6)	34 (32.1)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)
		Drug History	
Yes	68 (71.6)	82 (72.7)	67 (63.2)
No	27 (28.4)	34 (29.3)	39 (36.8)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)
		Alcohol History	
Yes	47 (49.5)	75 (64.7)	70 (66)
No	48 (40.5)	41 (35.3)	36 (34)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)
		Employment at Arrest	
Employed	56 (58.9)	47 (40.9)	36 (34)
Unemployed	39 (41.1)	68 (59.1)	69 (66)
Missing Data	---(---)	1 (---)	1 (---)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)
		Grade Upon Admission	
<12	36 (37.9)	71 (61.7)	106 (100)
≥12	59 (62.1)	44 (38.3)	---(---)
Missing Data	---(---)	1 (---)	---(---)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)

Groups I and II experienced a similar incidence of juvenile incarcerations prior to entering Lebanon, with 20 and 23 percent respectively having been incarcerated as juveniles. Group III experienced a far higher rate of juvenile incarcerations, exceeding 40%. This pattern is repeated in the prior adult incarcerations category, where Group I experienced the lowest rate of prior incarcerations (15.8%), Group II a slightly higher rate (21.6%) and Group III the highest rate (32.1%). The average age at first arrest for Groups I and II was 18, while Group III was just under 16. Indeed, a substantial majority of Group III was arrested before the age of 18 (72%), while only half of Groups I and II were arrested as juveniles.

Substance abuse (drug/alcohol) histories for the three comparison groups are reported in TABLE I Rows 3 and 4. Parolees were listed as having a history of substance abuse if they were under the influence of either alcohol or a controlled substance at the time of arrest or immediately prior to arrest. On this vaiable, all three comparison groups were substantially similar, with over 60% of each group having a history of substance abuse.

Employment status at arrest and educational attainment at admission to prison are reported in TABLE I, Rows 5 and 6. These variables illustrate that a linear relationship exists between education and employment prior to incarceration: the higher the level of education, the greater the incidence of employment.

Group I, which had an incidence of high school graduation or its equivalent of 62%, experienced an unemployment rate of 41%, while Group II, with a graduation rate of 38%, had an unemployment rate of nearly 60%. Group III confirmed this trend, by definition, with no high school graduation and an unemployment rate of nearly 67%.

Looking at Table I as a whole, it is possible to develop a portrait of the "typical" offender prior to his incarceration at Lebanon. An individual drops out of high school and becomes involved with alcohol and/or drugs. Continuing the decline, he experiences difficulty obtaining employment and begins engaging in behavior that leads to his first arrest while still a juvenile. After repeated juvenile infractions, he is convicted as an adult and committed to an adult facility.

POST RELEASE PERFORMANCE

Once inside Lebanon, inmates who possess a high school degree or its equivalent are eligible for admission into the associate degree program. Instructors for the program are employed by Wilmington College, a private liberal arts school located in nearby Wilmington, Ohio. They enter the prison in the evening to teach classes. It bears emphasis that most of the instructors in the program are private citizens who are not employees of the correctional facility. Inmate students enroll in courses on a full time basis in Business Administration, Computer Science, Human Services and Industrial Technology. It takes them approximately twenty-two months to earn an associate degree.

The college graduates, high school graduates, and dropouts selected for study were examined for their entire parole disposition, which ranged from 12 to 18 months during 1982-83. Post-release performance data on the three comparison groups are reported in TABLE II.

TABLE II: POST-RELEASE PERFORMANCE OF COMPARISON GROUPS

Variable	Group I N=95	Group II N=116	Group III N=106
	Employment Status at End of First Year		
Employed	64 (67.4)	69 (60.5)	42 (40)
Unemployed	31 (32.6)	45 (39.5)	64 (60)
Missing Data	---(----)	2(----)	---(---)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)
	Arrested During First Year on Parole		
Yes	24 (25.3)	45 (38.5)	51 (48)
No	71 (74.7)	71 (61.5)	55 (52)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)
	Parole Performance After First Year		
Recidivated	11 (11.6)	18 (15.5)	31 (29)
Did Not	84 (88.4)	98 (84.5)	75 (71)
	95 (100%)	116 (100%)	106 (100%)

Table II, Row 1 illustrates employment data from the three comparison groups. By the end of the first year on parole, over two-thirds of the college graduates were employed, compared to approximately 60% of the high school graduates and 40% of the high school dropouts. In order to qualify as being employed on parole, a parolee had to retain a job of thirty hours per week for at least ninety days. This finding illustrates that the college graduates exhibited an ability to maintain their employment over time, an achievement that many ex-offenders find difficult to do. Despite the relative success of the college graduates in the job market, their unemployment rate of 33% is somewhat disappointing. Viewed in the context of a statewide unemployment rate ranging from 13% in the height of the recession in 1982 to just over 9% by Fall, 1984, their unemployment rate was several times above the statewide rate as a whole.

Thus, the employment data suggests that a linear relationship exists between the level of education an inmate acquires while in prison and the likelihood of obtaining and retaining employment on parole. This linear relationship is echoed in the post-release performance of the parolees on the arrest and recidivism variables reported in TABLE II, Rows 2 and 3. Approximately 75% of the college graduates went arrest-free during the first year of release, compared to about 60% of the high school graduates and slightly over 50% of the high school dropouts. Mere arrest, of course, is not indicative of actual guilt on the merits, or even of the likelihood of a violation of the conditions of parole, but it does indicate a measure, however crude, of the parolees' ability to readjust successfully to the demands of life outside the institution. A more precise measure of successful reintegration, actual return to prison rates, nevertheless confirms the hypothesis that inmates with higher levels of education perform better than their less educated counterparts. As reported in TABLE II, Row 3, 11.6% of the college graduates returned to prison by the end of their first year on parole; 15.5% of the high school graduates returned, as did 29% of the high school dropouts. Because many of the parolees in the study were unable to meet the conditions of their parole within one year, an analysis of the study groups was also made at the end of parole supervision, which for many offenders was up to twenty-two months in length. Examination as of the end of parole

supervision, however, did not alter the linear relationships noted above. The college graduates retained their recidivism rate of 11.6%, the high school graduates had a recidivism rate of 17.2% and the high school dropouts increased to 31%. Thus, increasing the length of the examination period led to an increase in recidivism of approximately two percentage points for the non-college populations, but no change occurred for the college graduates.

In order to more fully explore the relationship betwen education, employment, and successful reintegration, employment rates for the college and high school graduates were compared to recidivism rates. This data is reported is reported in TABLE III, below .

TABLE III: EMPLOYMENT AND RECIDIVISM DATA FOR COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

College Graduates Employed On Parole

Recidivated	Yes	No	Total
Yes	5 (7.8)	6 (19.4)	11
No	59 (92.2)	25 (80.6)	84
	64 (100%)	31 (100%)	95

High School Graduates Employed on Parole

Recidivated	Yes	No	Total
Yes	3 (4.3)	14 (31.1)	17
No	66 (100)	31 (68.9)	97
Total	69 (100)	45 (100)	114
		Missing data	2
			116

Examining the college graduates, only 8% of those who were employed on parole recidivated, compared to 20% of those who were unemployed. The high school graduates confirmed this trend: 4% of those who were employed on parole recidivated, compared to 31% of those who were unemployed. The Chi Square Test of Significance was run on the key variables of the study, and statistically significant relationships a t the .01 level were established between education and employment, unemployment and arrest, and unemployment and recidivism for the high school graduates. Likewise, statistically significant relationships at the .01 level were established between unemployment and arrest and unemployment and recidivism for the high school dropouts. The college graduates, however, did not exhibit statistically significant relationships for these variables.

The absence of statistically significant relationships between educational attainment, employment, and recidivism among college graduates, although somewhat counter to the hypothesis under study, is not necessarily conclusive due to the small number of parolees who recidivated from all three groups. Viewed descriptively, however, the conclusion can be drawn that linear relationships between education and successful reintegration, measured in terms of employment and freedom from arrest and subsequent reincarceration, can be said to exist for all three comparison groups. This is illustrated in the following tables.

PAROLE PERFORMANCE

TABLE IV: RECIDIVISM ON PAROLE

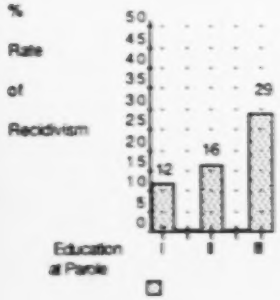


TABLE V: ARRESTED ON PAROLE

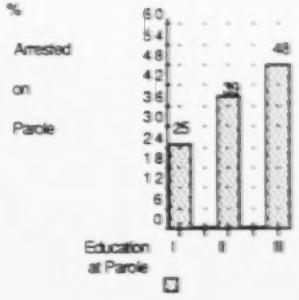
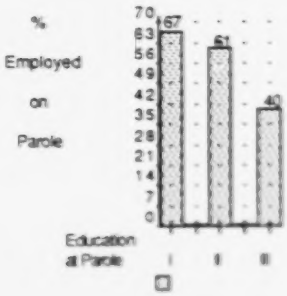


TABLE VI: EMPLOYED ON PAROLE



Legend:

Group I	Associate degree
Group II	High School degree
Group III	Dropout

PERFORMANCE OF AT RISK PAROLEES

In view of the relatively high achievement levels of the college graduates in the study during their pre-incarceration experience and their imprisonment, it is possible to argue that the successful reintegration of this population is predictable and unnoteworthy. Indeed, perhaps they would have succeeded on parole even without college participation. In order to challenge this type of criticism, a subsample of the college graduates was drawn on the basis of persons whose pre-prison backgrounds indicated they were at risk of future involvement in crime. Fifty-seven persons from among the college graduates were selected who were either unemployed at the time of their initial arrest or were high school dropouts at this time. On this basis, it could reasonably be suggested that these persons would be at risk of failure upon release from prison, given the deleterious impact of incarceration for most prisoners. This subsample of fifty-seven "at risk" parolees was compared to ninety-one of the high school graduates who met these operationalizations. Thus, the subsample attempted to compare parolees who entered prison equally at risk of failure but differed in that parolees from the first group received college level instruction inside the institution, while the second group did not.

TABLE VII, below, illustrates the fundamental similarity between the pre-prison backgrounds of subsample Group I and Group II.

TABLE VII: COMPARATIVE DATA ON AT RISK PAROLEES

High School Dropouts or Unemployed At Arrest

Variable	Group I N=57	Group II N=91
	Prior To Incarceration Educational Attainment Upon Admission	
High School Dropouts	36 (63.2)	70 (76.9)
GED/High School Degree	21 (36.8)	21 (23.1)
Missing Data	---(----)	---(----)
	57 (100%)	91 (100%)
	Prior Adult Incarceration	
Yes	10 (17.5)	22 (24.2)
No	47 (82.5)	69 (75.8)
	57 (100%)	91 (100%)
	Prior Juvenile Incarcerations	
Yes	16 (28.1)	25 (27.5)
No	41 (71.9)	66 (72.5)
	57 (100%)	91 (100%)
	Employment Status At Arrest	
Employed	18 (31.6)	24 (26.4)
Unemployed	39 (68.4)	67 (73.6)
Missing Data	---(----)	---(----)
	57 (100%)	91 (100%)

Fewer than six percentage points separated the two comparison groups on such key variables as educational attainment at admission to prison, extent of prior institutionalization, and employment at arrest. The only significant difference, then, between these two groups was what they were able to do with their time in prison, Group I earning college degrees and Group II completing high school/GED then pursuing other institutional job assignments. As the statistics in TABLE VIII indicate, however, the two comparison groups differ considerably in their post-release performance. Group I was employed at a higher rate than Group II, was arrested at a lower rate, and experienced a lower recidivism rate.

TABLE VIII: COMPARATIVE DATA ON AT RISK PAROLEES

High School Dropouts or Unemployed At Arrest

Post Release Performance

Variable	Group I N=57	Group II N=91
Employment Status On Parole		
Employed	35 (61.4)	49 (54)
Unemployed	22 (38.6)	41 (46)
Missing Data	-- (---)	1 (--)
	57 (100%)	91 (100%)
Arrested On Parole		
Yes	15 (26.3)	40 (44)
No	42 (73.7)	51 (56)
	57 (100%)	91 (100%)
Parole Performance		
Recidivated	8 (14)	16 (17.6)
Did Not Recidivate	49 (86)	75 (82.4)
	57 (100%)	91 (100%)

Moreover, when contrasted with the complete study groups, the subsample of "at risk" parolees consistently performed less favorably on these key variables. See TABLE IX, below. This confirms the reliability of the criteria used to operationalize the "at risk" subsample, and it adds further support for the conclusion that a linear relationship exists between education, employment, and recidivism.

TABLE IX: POST RELEASE PERFFORMANCE

Variable	Group I	Group I At Risk	Group II	Group II At Risk
Employed On Parole	67%	61%	60%	54%
Arrested On Parole	25%	26%	38%	44%
Recidivated	11.6%	14%	15.5%	18%

The strength of the evidence in the subsample of "at risk" parolees brings the criticism, that " Correctional higher education only assists inmates who will suceed anyway!" into serious question. Indeed, the data supports the hypothesis that even persons who have a high likelihood of recidivating, based on their criminal backgrounds and lack of employment and educational histories, derive substantial benefit from access to college while in prison.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to compare the official records of post release behavior for graduates and non-graduates to determine how they differed, to what extent and in which areas of reintegration they differed. On the basis of empirical data from comparisons of the recidivism rates of college graduates, high school graduates, and high school dropouts, the original hypothesis was confirmed. Linear relationships were established between education attainment, employment, and freedom from reincarceration among both the complete study groups and the "at risk" subsamples. While these relationships, for the most part, were not found to be statistically significant at the .01 level of significance, this is attributable to the low number of persons available for study.

It should be emphasized that the quasi-experimental nature of this study makes it difficult to establish a causal relationship between educational attainment and recidivism. Moreover, the limited amount of time the parolees spend on parole, from one to two years, makes it arguable that second and third year follow-ups of persons in the original study are needed to ensure that their reintegration is, in fact, successful over time.

Nevertheless, as a descriptive study alone, this research adds evidentiary support for the proposition that post-secondary correctional education programs offer valuable resources for inmates to utilize in their effort to reintegrate successfully upon release from prison.

ENDNOTES

California Department of Corrections Research Division, **Annual Research Review**, Sacramento, California, 1962, p. 39, as cited in David F. Greenberg, "Much Ado About Little: The Correctional Effects of Corrections," **Final Report of the Committee for the Study of Incarceration**, June 1974, p. 23.

Fogel, David, We Are the Living Proof, The Anderson Publishing Co., Cincinnati, Ohio, 1979.

Jacobson, Frank and McGee, Eugene, "Englewood Project: Re-Education: A Radical Correction of Incarcerated Delinquents," Englewood, Colorado, 1965, as cited in Martinson, op.cit., p. 26,; n.1.

Kettering, Marvin, Rehabilitation of Women in the Milwaukee County Jail: An Exploration Experiment, PhD. Dissertation, University of Michigan, 1972, as cited in Greenberg, op.cit., p. 25 n. 2.

Martinson, Robert, "What Works?- -Questions and Answers about Prison Reform," **The Public Interest**, No. 35, National Affairs, Inc. 1974.

Pfannenstiel, Judy C., and Hoyt, James L. **Post Release Experiences of Students from State Correctional Institutions**. Vol. 3. National Evaluation of Title I Programs in State Institutions for Neglected and Delinquent Youth.

Spencer, Carol and Berecochea, John, "Vocational Training at the California Institute for Women: An Evaluation," Research Report No. 41, Department of Corrections Research Division, Sacramento, California, 1971, as cited in Greenberg, op.cit., p. 25, n.2.

Thompson, James W.; Sviridoff, Michelle; and McElroy, Jerome E., **Employment and Crime: A Review of Theories and Research**. Vera Institute of Justice, 1981., and National Institute of Justice, 1982.

Wilson, Cicero, Kenneth Lenihan, and Gail A. Goolkasian, **Employment Services for Ex-Offenders: Program Models**. U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

Wolf, Judith, and Sylves, David. **The Impact of Higher Education Opportunity Programs, Post Prison Experience of Disadvantaged Students**. Albany, New York State Education Department, 1981. Department, 1981.

Ziven, Morton, "Youth in Trouble: A Vocational Approach," Final Report of a Research and Demonstration Project, May 31, 1961-August 31, 1966, Dobbs Ferry, New York, Children's Village, 1966, as cited in Martinson, op.cit., p. 26, n. 1.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

Raymond Bell
Colleen McDonnell

This paper is based in part on work conducted under a Technical Assistance Grant from the National Institute of Corrections to the Washington State Department of Corrections. The opinions stated herin, however, are those of the authors.

INTRODUCTION

There is continuing evidence to suggest that educational programs in correctional facilities continue to be buffeted by political, legal, economic, and numerical forces that are both internal and external. Given such forces, planning for educational programming in the correctional facility continues to be extraordinarily difficult at best. It is ineluctable, therefore, that planning, particularly in the administration, program design and evaluation continues to be lacking in many programs. This lack of appropriate planning, regardless of cause, has been demonstrated both directly and indirectly in numerous studies (Coffey, 1985; Bell, 1985; Bell, Conard, Gazze, Greenwood, Lutz, & Suppa, 1983; Conrad, 1981; GAO, 1980; Bell, Conard, Laffey, Lutz, Miller, Simon, Stakelon, & Wilson, 1979; ECS, 1976). It is axiomatic, however, that the success of any program, educational or otherwise, depends upon systematic planning before action is initiated. This paper considers the role that needs assessment plays in the critical first steps of the planning process.

Needs assessment measures the discrepancy between "what is" and "what should be" (Kaufman, 1972). Most of the literature on needs assessment emphasizes the necessity to concentrate upon statements of desired "products." In the secure environment of the correctional institution, however, the "products" include more than just the desired outcomes for the learners. A comprehensive needs assessment here must include statements of "what should be" in terms of institutional priorities, security policies, educational and other classification procedures, educational personnel competencies, legal needs, legislative interest, budgetary timetable and a host of other variables that are unique to the prison environment.

While this discussion begins with a justification for an on-going needs assessment in education in general and in correctional education specifically, the thrust of the paper seeks to provide a practical guide for conducting a needs assessment in the prison environment. The issues addressed include what data to be collected, what data to be reported, who should be involved, the time and timing of the process, and how the process might be structured. To this extent it should be considered as a "moveable feast" in which the recipes and the menu are dictated by circumstance, type and size of facility, contractual relationships, and political considerations. It has serious implications, too, for those systems in which external contractual arrangements exist to provide educational services to the inmate population.

THE JUSTIFICATION FOR A NEEDS ASSESSMENT

It is difficult to believe that, while the intellectual logic for such a process is readily acceptable by any institutional administrator, there is a continuing need to justify the practical benefits of conducting an assessment as part of the educational planning process. There are obvious reasons why it is a necessarily essential part of planning.

- It standardizes the decision-making process.
- It provides a basis for establishing priorities.
- It gives necessary information for the preparation of contractual

- It gives relevant and necessary information to address the needs of **all** constituencies in the institution.
- It **allows flexibility** in planning to meet the **unique and changing** needs of a prison population.
- It provides a standard for on-going formal evaluation and periodic formal evaluation.

While these statements are true in any educational institution, there are several characteristics of the prison environment which make an effective and efficient process of assessing needs particularly critical. Some of these characteristics are the following:

Funding.* "There is a lack of sufficient funding to provide adequate space, staff, and programs for **all those inmates who have or who appear to have educational needs" (Bell et al., 1979, p. 86). This condition continues to plague the whole field. It is necessary, therefore, to identify those areas where needs are most critical. Requests for additional funding in the annual sequential and hierarchial budgetary process are usually more successful when justified by supporting data that a needs assessment can provide.

Unique needs of the learners.* Many inmates have failed in traditional educational programs for a set of extraordinarily complex reasons. Bell et al. (1983), in **The nature and prevalence of learning deficiencies among adult inmates, reported that the average grade level achieved by the inmates in their sample on the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) was 6.7, more than three years below the average highest grade attended. The same study found that 42% scored at or below the fifth grade level in one or more of the subtests on the TABE and that, of those, 82% had demonstrable learning disabilities when measured by a cursory screening test.

**Complexity of the environment.* A wide variety of educational needs and an equally wide variety of environmental constraints collaborate to create a complex set of variables with which the education administrator must contend. These include but are not limited to such variables as the following:

- External service contracts.
- Relationship of security to treatment priorities.
- Availability of space and personnel.
- Incentives and disincentives to enroll in and to attend educational classes.
- Needs and requirements of institutional maintenance and of prison industries and agricultural enterprises.
- The political climate and the legislative process.
- Overcrowding.

To shortchange needs assessment in such a complex environment is to relegate the likelihood of having a successful program to chance.

Despite this "need for needs assessment" in correctional education, research suggests that those being done are less than adequate. Bell et al. (1979) looked at needs assessment in a sample of state and federal correctional facilities as it related to course design. Their report stated that "most of the assessments reported were of limited scope and were conducted either for a specific project or in response to a funding requirement" (p. 74). Conrad (1981), in his evaluation of the educational programs

serving adult offenders states that "the Bureau of Prisons conducts an annual needs assessment at each institution, based partly on the performance level of the population and partly in the returns of questionnaires distributed to each prisoner (p. 61). As the discussion in the next section will show, inmate performance levels and expressed interests are only two of several data elements that should be considered in a comprehensive needs assessment. It should be also noted that inmates' expressions of interest and perceptions of need are sometimes susceptible to moderate exaggeration and warp and, if used as the sole or the major basis for planning, may result in inappropriate outcomes.

CONDUCTING THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT

This section suggests a general model for needs assessment in correctional education. The model is presented in three parts: a description of the data elements that ought to be collected and reported, a discussion of who should be involved in the process, and suggestions for how the process might be structured including an examination of the possible areas of conflict. Different institutions often have very different administrative and reporting structures; consequently, it may be necessary to adjust the model somewhat, as suggested earlier, to better fit the organization, form and availability of data, the roles of the participants, and the flow of the process. The model does provide a good starting point for the educational administrator who can customize the components to best fit his/her specific situation and institution.

What Data Should Be Collected and What Data Should Be Reported?

The needs assessment process involves looking at two kinds of variables. The first kind of variables are those that are given or "fixed," in that they are not variables that the educational planner or administrator either seeks to change or is able to change. "Fixed" variables include certain inmate and community characteristics, such as the average length of stay in the institution or the job market needs of the community to which the inmate returns. The other category of variables are those which are amenable to change; it is in terms of these variables that needs are expressed. Data are collected for both types of variables because they are both important for determining needs. Only the second category, however, are reported in the needs assessment document, since it is these variables that constitute the "needs".

Certain variables fall clearly in the "fixed" category, such as the two cited above. In the section that follows, the variables that are obviously "fixed" are labeled accordingly, and are presented first. This restricted list of "fixed" variables, however, may be considered overly optimistic in terms of what variables it implies are adjustable. Certainly, the degree of control that can be exercised over various enviromental factors, differs between institutions. Again, individual planners or administrators should use their own discretion and familiarity with their specific environment to decide where particular components fit in their version of a needs assessment model, which will, in turn, determine what data the needs assessment document should include.

The variables that ought to be considered in any comprehensive needs assessment are presented here in an outline form. Because of the comments above regarding the limited scope of most of the needs assessment being done, it is both appropriate and important to offer a detailed guide for what a complete needs assessment should contain. As much specific detail as space permits is provided; however, some of the variables are stated at a level of detail that is by no means exhaustive.

The major variables which we suggest should be considered are the following:

A. Inmate Characteristics.

B. Institutional Needs.

C. Program Design Needs.

D. Personnel Needs.

E. Community Characteristics.

A. Inmate Characteristics.

These data define the nature of the inmates in the system and are necessary to have available in order to design and/or modify the educational program. It is **extremely** helpful to have these data available in a standardized system-wide, on-line offender-based tracking system. These data might include:

- Number of inmates.
- Average length of stay.
- Primary language spoken.
- Racial groupings as a percentage of the population.
- Level of prior education.
- Levels of academic achievement on a standardized measure.
- Distribution of occupational preference.
- Record of previous employment.
- Ability distributions.
- Number with specific handicapping conditions.

The process of collecting these data may indicate special areas of unaddressed need. They will certainly be necessary to have available when addressing program design needs.

B. Institutional Characteristics.

These define some of the environmental variables that impact upon the educational program. While the educational administrator may not have direct control over most of the factors listed here, it is to be hoped that he/she is aware of them and can manipulate them sufficiently to bring about the changes which will enhance the operation of the educational program. The institutional environment may dictate, however, that some of the characteristics are fixed rather than variable. That should not diminish their effect upon, and their influence in, the planning process.

- Space availability (classrooms, offices, and study areas).
- Security procedures (inmate movement, time availability).
- Prison industries (relationship and relevance to the educational program).
- Economic incentives and disincentives to enroll in educational programs.
- Allocation of resources for instructional needs.
- Adequacy of administrative reporting structure.

* Definition of responsibilities of institutional administrative units.

C. Program Design Needs

This is the primary focus of the process. In considering needs in this area, one should consider the variables and the needs identified previously, particularly under A. Inmate Characteristics, above.

* Stated educational goals in global terms.
* Recruitment and selection procedures:
    + Academic and Vocational Counseling
    + Educational Classification:
        - -Adequacy and format of information collected
        - -Appropriate selection of assessment tools
        - -Utility of information and speed of transfer
    + Criteria for selection and placement in program
    + Student incentives for enrolling
* Enrollment, scheduling and withdrawal procedures.
* Diagnostic and assessment capability:
    + Instrumentation and testing procedures
    + Procedures and process
    + Staff capabilities
    + Follow-up
* Curriculum and course design:
    + Adult Basic Education
    + GED/Secondary level
    + Post-secondary level
    + Vocational
    + Social education
* Program objectives.
* Course objectives.
* Grading/assessment policies and procedures.

- Credentialing and transcripting policies.
- Instructional materials and technologies.
- Instructional methods.
- PL 94-142 Requirements:
    - + Identification procedures
    - + Composition of multi-disciplinary team
    - + Preparation and implementation of IEP
- Post program and post release follow-up.
- Program evaluation:
    - + Frequency
    - + Design
    - + Process
    - + External **versus** internal
    - + Participants

D. Personnel Needs.

The needs of the people employed in the educational program are critical to program success, and it is recognized that needs in the areas of recruitment, training, morale, retention, in-service training, and performance evaluation must be attended to if the educational program delivery is to be of the best quality. It is equally critical that these areas are examined in an open, honest and just fashion.

- Recruitment and selection of personnel.
- Qualifications and competencies.
- Job descriptions.
- Availability and assignment of personnel.
- In-service training.
- Salary and fringe benefits.
- Job security.
- Instructional load.

- Performance evaluation:
  - Frequency
  - Process
  - Career development
- Departmental lines of communication.
- Affirmative action planning.

E. Community Characteristics

The integration of the educational program with the treatment plan for the individual inmate requires that there are some contacts with the "street." There are needs in this regard that ought to be considered.

- Trends and requirements in specific job markets.
- Advisory committees composed of community representatives.

CONSIDERATIONS IN DEVELOPING A SITUATIONAL-SPECIFIC MODEL

The development of a model for use in a particular system or institution is governed by numerous factors not least of which are time, capability, and political considerations. These dictate the format and determine the participants. The process, whatever the paradigm used, should be more inclusive than exclusive for it is arguably true that the more involved personnel are in the process the more accurate it will be and the more acceptable the results or recommendations will be to those concerned. This logic is occasionally confounded by the secure and exclusive nature of the prison environment.

The way in which the needs are assessed is less important than the fact that they are assessed. Models which utilize a "Likert" type scale or a "degree of satisfaction" format are equally useful. Another format, which is flexible but which may allow the process to focus more readily upon identified needs, is the "direct question - forced response," e.g.:

> *Are there specific problems or needs regarding the allocation of resources necessary to meet the requirements of running your educational program? Consider expenditures per student, availability of funds to purchase vocational training equipment, instructional hardware and software, and library resources.*
>
> _____*NO* _____*YES*
>
> *If you check "YES," please list your needs and recommendations for meeting them.*

The three groups of possible participants in the process would be those who stand to benefit from the needs assessment, those who control needed resources, and those who administer related programs. It is not possible in most cases to include everyone in these three groups although representatives from each group should be considered.

Included in the first group would be the direct providers and the recipients. The providers subgroup should include representatives of the educational staff including supervisory and teaching personnel as well as psychologists, counselors, and diagnosticians. Included in this group would be representatives from any agency that has been contracted to provide the educational service to the institution or to the system. External agencies rarely have direct experience with, or an understanding of, the unique needs

of the prison population or the correctional educator. It is, therefore, important that they seek to redress this deficiency by close participation in such processes. The key person in this group, and indeed the whole process, is the educational director or principal. The second subgroup would be inmate representatives.

The extent to which inmates should be involved in the needs assessment process is debatable and there has been comment above on some of the difficulties associated with the perceptions of inmates in this regard. Inmate desires for particular academic and vocational programs can be determined but the degree to which desires correspond to needs cannot be predicted. Quite possibly participation in educational programs could be affected by inmate perception that their solicited and expressed needs were ignored.

As the primary consumers of the educational programs, however, the inmates contribute a unique perspecitve that may provide valuable insights into the effectiveness of both the various program offerings and the school policies and procedures. It is suggested that the benefits of inmate participation, particularly in the area of current program evaluation, might outweigh the potential disadvantage.

The second group of participants in the needs assessment process includes those institutional staff members who control the resources needed to deliver the educational program. Tangible resources include, at a minimum, budget and staff appropriations and space. The security staff can be thought of as controlling an intangible resource: TIME. Security procedures and the conduct of the security staff can both directly affect the time available for education, as can job and treatment assignments.

Finally, the administrators of related programs should be involved in the needs assessment process as far as is practical. Representatives of this group would potentially include treatment, prison industries, and the parole and commutation boards. Participation by such representatives may promote a common vision of treatment goals and a more effective integration of treatment modalities.

As asserted above, a needs assessment measures the difference between "what is" and "what should be." The process logically begins, then, with a comprehensive evaluation of the current situation. Program planning should always include the design of an evaluation component. The role played by evaluation in the needs assessment process suggests that the design of the evaluation component parallels that of the needs assessment model. The desired values for all the data components need to be determined from the perspective of the educational department personnel. Questionnaries and/or interviews structured in one of the paradigms referred to above, and group meetings or individual conferences between employees and the educational administrator responsible for the needs assessment can be employed to address any differences of opinion that may exist.

The last step of the process involves the preparation of a final needs assessment document that incorporates all the agreed upon values reached in the process. This document should prioritize the needs within each of the five areas described above and should have some discussion of the potential costs, if any, of the recommended solutions. It is economically and politically important that the results of this process, and any recommendations for action to redress the needs identified, reach those who have the authority and responsibility for taking implementing action or for presenting requests for financial support to the appropriate administrative or legislative body, in time for them to act.

The process of needs assessment that has been described here may be an overwhelming and frustrating process to the educational administrator for whom time is as precious and scarce a resource as is money. It is certainly not the intent of this discussion to discourage needs assessment by proposing a process so comprehensive that it becomes cumbersome and of little value. In the interests of practical utility, then, some suggestions for streamlining the process may be appropriate.

It should be noted that conducting a needs assessment in a prison educational program is akin to making love to an elephant - if not successful you will be trampled to death and if you are successful, you won't find out for two years! The second time is also much quicker but not as satisfying! Not only should experience with the process lead to greater efficiency, but the institutional climate will dictate the relevance and irrelevance of the various variables presented so that consideration of certain of them need only occur once, if at all. Should the process seem still too lengthy or lacking in utility even after the elimination of irrelevant variables, the educational administrator can prioritize the various areas to be addressed, choosing, if necessary, to eliminate some from consideration altogether.

ENDWORD

In many ways most observers would readily agree on the general areas to be addressed in a needs assessment. As seen above there are also various ways to address the structure of a process which would produce the analysis desired. The preceding discussion is offered as possible aid in that process. It would be inappropriate, however, to end without restating in the strongest terms the single most damaging pitfall in the process of conducting needs assessments, particularly of correctional education programs. This is the pitfall of the threat which the process itself creates.

The decision to conduct a needs assessment of an institutional and/or system-wide correctional education program is by its very nature a difficult one. It assumes that there are needs not addressed and, therefore, "a person or persons unknown" is somehow to blame. The process of deciding to do, and then conducting, a needs assessment can be viewed as an implicit or explicit threat. This perception can be exacerbated by the unique climate of a correctional facility. If external contractual obligations are involved, then the possibilities of a negative response to the decision to embark upon a needs assessment process, regardless of its structure, are compounded. If an honest and utilitarian effort is to be made these realities must be acknowledged, and where possible, addressed. This can be done by involving all parties in both the design of the model as well as in the assessment process itself. It is suggested, however, that there may be circumstances where political, professional, or personal insecurities on the part of some of the parties may preempt an accurate and honest assessment of the needs of the correctional education program. It is tempting, in such circumstances, to accept the results of such assessments as a fair analysis of the needs of the program. This, it would seem, to be an unfortunate mistake. While the model for a needs assessment is flexible, and the best or most appropriate design or process is open to debate, to allow the outcomes to be distorted by insecurities will not be in the best interest of the inmates, the correctional educator, or the taxpayer.

References

Bell, R., Conard, E., Laffey, T., Lutz, J.G., Miller, P., Simon, C., Stakelon, A., & Wilson, N. (1979). **Correctional education programs for inmates.** Washington, DC: A National Evaluation Program, Phase 1 Report, U.S. Government Printing Office.

Bell, R., Conard, E., Gazze, B., Greenwood, S., Lutz, J.G., & Suppa, R. (1983). **The nature and prevalence of learning deficiencies among adult inmates.** Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice.

Conrad, J. (1981). **Adult offender education programs.** Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Grant Number J-LEAA-013-78.

Kaufman, R. (1972). **Educational system planning.** Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

About the Authors:

Professor Bell is the Chairman of the Department of Counseling Psychology, School Psychology, and Special Education at Lehigh University. Dr. Bell directed two national studies on Correctional Education for the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice, the latest one being the "Nature and Prevalence of the Learning Deficiencies Among Adult Inmates" from 1981-1983.

Colleen McDonnell who is completing her graduate program at Lehigh Universtiy has worked at the State Correctional facility at Graterford, Pennsylvania.

THE RELATIONSHIPS OF WAIS-R SCORES SOCIAL VARIABLES AND EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION TO READING ACHIEVEMENT IN PRISON POPULATION

Scott Coleman Greenwood
Raymond Bell

*This paper was supported in part by Grant Number 81-IJ-CS-0014 awarded to Lehigh University by the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice. Opinions stated herein are those of the authors.

Abstract

This paper investigated certain cognitive, social, and educational variables as they impacted upon the reading achievement of incarcerated adults. The paper was intended to provide a baseline descriptive analysis and to serve a heuristic function for future research.

The subjects, 606 men and women incarcerated in Louisiana, Pennsylvania, and Washington, each took the Tests of Adult Basic Education (TABE) and the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised (WAIS-R). General descriptive data were gathered for the total sample, and "able" and "disabled" readers were systematically examined in a series of discriminant analyses. Large disparities were found between the two groups in cognitive ability as measured by the WAIS-R. In the discriminant analyses, the cognitive variables were more reliable predictors of reading skill than were "other" educational data. The subjects, in general, were found to be functioning far below national norms.

Incarcerated adults represent one subgroup of our population consistently exhibiting severe educational underachievement. Exact figures change as definitions change, but few would argue that without basic literary skills, reintegration to life outside of prison is difficult. Successive studies of the academic levels of adult inmates have indicated that their functional literacy levels are significantly lower than those of the general population (Bell, Conrad, Gazze, Greenwood, Lutz, & Suppa, 1983; Bell, Conard, Laffey, Lutz, Miller, Simon, Stakelon, & Wilson, 179; Dell'Apa, 1973; Education Commission of the States, 1976; General Accounting Office, 1980; Kitty, 1977; Reagan, Stoughton, Smith, & Davis, 1973). Concerning the reading achievement of incarcerated individuals, the Federal Bureau of Prisons estimated that up to 50% could not read (Reagan et al., 1973). Ten years later, Bell et al. (1983), reported a mean composite reading grade equivalent of 7.2 for 762 subjects in their national study.

This paper attempts to examine various cognitive, social, and educational variables as they related to the reading achievement of a sample of adult inmates. Descriptive data were gathered for the total sample and the total group was then divided into "able" and "disabled" reading groups which were in turn systematically examined. Certain variables were then entered into a series of discriminant analyses in order to determine if the two reading groups were quantitatively separable with respect to the various predictors.

METHOD

In each of the states of Louisiana, Pennsylvania, and Washington, two male institutions and one female institution were identified as being representative in terms of size and security status. Computer-generated random numbers were then utilized to select potential subjects for the study. These individuals were apprised of the aims of the study, and permission letters were read to all potential subjects who attended small group meetings.

Measuring Instruments

Two standardized tests were used in the current study. Only those subjects who completed all subtests of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised (WAIS-R), as well as the Reading subtests of the Tests of Adult Basic Education (TABE), were included in the sample. Additionally, prison records were examined so that certain background data concerning the volunteers were available.

The WAIS-R. The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R), commonly used instruments of choice for the assessment of intelligence of school-age children (Kaufman, 1981), have been subjected to much investigation as they relate to reading in that age group. Particular attention has been paid over the years to the search for a unique subtest pattern to aid in the identification and remediation of disabled readers. The "Bannatyne factors" have been widely scrutinized.

Bannatyne (1968) first proposed his recategorization by stating that a child's Full Scale Verbal and Performance IQ's should be calculated.

> However, it is now well known from factor analytic studies that the verbal and performance breakdown scores do not have much psychological meaning. I have found it more useful to analyze the W.I.S.C. (sic) in the following way:
>
> > A Spatial Score is obtained by adding together the scaled scores of three of the performance subtests which do not involve sequencing.
> >
> > They are Picture Completion, plus Block Design, plus Object Assembly.
> >
> > The Conceptualizing Score is compiled from scaled scores as follows:
> >
> > > Comprehension + Similarities + Vocabulary
> >
> > A Sequencing Score is obtained by combining the scaled scores for:
> >
> > > Digit Span + Picture Arrangement + Coding
> >
> > The composite mean standardized scaled scores expected for each of these groupings of three subtests is thirty. By comparing a child's Spatial score with his Conceptualizing and Sequencing score, one can obtain just that much more information as to where the child's deficit areas lie. Many genetic dyslexic children (Bannatyne, 1966) will obtain a good Spatial score and a poor Sequencing score when these areas are compared with their overall ability, their deficit being more in auditory closure and sequencing. (p. 244)

According to Bannatyne the Spatial subtests require the ability to manipulate objects directly or symbolically in a multidimensional space, whereas the Conceptual subtests entail abilities more closely related to language functioning. Finally, the Sequential subtests require the ability to retain sequences of auditory and visual stimuli in short-term memory storage. Bannatyne reported that his genetic dyslexic readers showed a strong Spatial > Spatial > Conceptual > Sequential pattern. His conclusion was that greater insights concerning specific areas of deficits of children could be gained by comparing these "recategorized" subtest scores; these children tended to obtain a good Spatial score and a poor Sequential score compared to their overall ability, their deficits being more in the areas of auditory closure and sequencing skills. Bannatyne's recategorization was based on an inspection of the subtests, not on factor analytic findings. It was simply a heuristic model that was proposed that may aid in test interpretation.

Rugel (1974), after reviewing factor analyses of the WISC, concluded that there was justification for regrouping the subtests into three factors rather than two; however, he felt that Picture Arrangement was

misplaced in the Sequential factor, and that Arithmetic would be an appropriate substitute. In his reply to Rugel, Bannatyne (1974) approved this substitution; additionally, he proposed a realignment into four categories as follows: **Spatial:** Picture Completion, Block Design, and Object Assembly; **Conceptual:** Comprehension, Similarities, and Vocabulary; **Sequential:** Arithmetic, Digit Span, and Coding; **Acquired Knowledge:** Information, Arithmetic, and Vocabulary.

In the decade-plus since the 1974 regrouping of the Bannatyne factors, many researchers have investigated this Wechsler grouping as it relates to reading. Despite the conflicting findings of many of these studies, it still appears that the Bannatyne breakdown has some validity, particularly if one notes the consistently depressed Sequential scores of exceptional learners (Badian, 1981). Furthermore, Kaufman (1981) noted that the Bannatyne system often is more useful than the Verbal-Performance breakdown, especially with learning disabled individuals.

Although researchers have studied the results of the WISC and the WISC-R as these scores related to the diagnosis of reading and learning disabilities in children, the WAIS and the WAIS-R have not received nearly as much attention. In particular, researchers have not thoroughly investigated the WAIS-R as a tool in the diagnosis of reading disabilities.

The TABE. The TABE level M (Medium) was administered to all of the subjects in this study. A Total Reading grade equivalent was obtained from publisher tables by combining the raw scores on the TABE /reading Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension subtests. The test-makers state that the TABE is intended for use with adults of limited educational experience from various cultural backgrounds. The validity of the TABE construction rests on the assumption that achievement batteries intended for children can be usefully modified for Adult Basic Education (ABE) (Tiegs & Clark, 1976).

The total sample was divided into able and disabled reading groups for subsequent analyses based solely on TABE Reading performance, the only other limitation being that each subject had to score a full Scale IQ on the WAIS-R of at least 70. The problem of the use of grade equivalents reflects the "state of the art"

when dealing with the extremely diverse ABE population. Grade equivalents have limitations when used with children; these difficulties in interpretability are compounded when used with adults. The TABE was designed for use in a variety of educational settings to fill a number of assessment and institutional needs. Although not a measure of "absolute" grade equivalency, the TABE provided information on the **relative** reading performance of the subjects.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms were operationalized:

> **Educational preparation**. Educational preparation was defined as the highest grade of school completed by the inmate, either in or out of the institution where incarcerated at the time of the study. This information was gathered from the prison records at the various institutions.
>
> **Disabled readers**. A subject was categorized as a disabled reader if he/she attained a composite score below the sixth-grade level (6.0) on the TABE Reading subtests; the FSIQ's of these individuals could not, however, fall below 70. This information was solely a reflection of TABE results in conjunction with WAIS-R scores.
>
> **Able reader**. A subject was categorized as an able reader if he/she attained a composite score above the end of seventh-grade level (7.9) on the TABE Reading subtests, regardless of FSIQ.

Design and Procedure

The initial stage of the analysis was descriptive in nature. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences ((SPSS); Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Brent, 1975) Frequencies and Condescriptive procedures were used to generate social and educational variables for the entire sample (N = 606) as well as for the able (N = 335) and disabled (N = 133) reading groups. Cognitive variables were then gathered for the same groups using SPSS procedures. Finally, to determine if the able and disabled reading groups were quantitatively separable with respect to the various predictor variables, an SPSS stepwise discriminant analysis was utilized. This procedure attempted to find the linear combination of variables that best discriminated between the two groups and included in the function those variables that maximized the F ratio for the groups.

Table A

Mean Grade Equivalents on TABE
Reading Subtests

	Able (N = 335)	Disabled (N = 133)	Total (N = 606)
Vocabulary	9.2	4.6	7.2
	(S = .49)	(S = 2.04)	(S = 2.38)
Comprehension	10.0	4.0	7.7
	(S = 0)	(S = 1.83)	(S = 2.23)
Reading Total	9.8	4.5	7.3
	(S = .20)	(S = 2.19)	(S = 2.27)

Note. Maximum score = 10.0.

RESULTS

Social and Educational Background Characteristics

The total sample (N = 606) scored a mean grade equivalent of 7.2 for the Vocabulary subtest, a mean grade equivalent of 7.7 for the Comprehension subtest, and a mean grade equivalent of 7.3 for Reading Total. The able readers (N =335) scored grade equivalents of 9.2, 10.0, and 9.8 for Vocabulary, Comprehension, and Reading Total, respectively. The disabled readers (N = 133) scored grade equivalents of 4.6, 4.0, and 4.5 for (again respectively) Vocabulary, Comprehension, and Reading Total. The mean age of the total sample was 30.49 years (S = 8.48). The disabled readers were slightly younger (X = 29.89, S = 8.99) than were the able readers (X = 30.50, S = 8.26).

Concerning the sex breakdown of the sample, 459 of the total 606 (75.7%) were males and 147 (24.3%) were females. There was a breakdown of 72.8% male and 27.2% female in the able group (N = 335) as opposed to 87.2% male and 12.8% female in the disabled group. Ethnic information was available for 585 of the 606 inmates in the sample. All but 10 of the 585 inmates were identified as either Afro-American or Caucasian. For that reason, in later analyses the ethnic background of the sample was collapsed into Caucasian and minority categories. According to this breakdown, the total sample was 45.3% Caucasian and 54.7% minority. The able readers were 62.6% Caucasian, and the disabled readers were 18.8% Caucasian.

Table B

Mean Age Sex and Ethnic Breakdowns

Age	Able (N = 127)	Disabled (N = 318)	Total (N = 581)
(years)	30.50	9.89	30.49
	(S = 8.26)	(S = 8.99)	(S = 8.48)
Sex	**Able (N = 335)**	**Disabled (N = 133)**	**Total (N = 606)**
Male	N = 244	N = 116	N = 459
(%)	(72.8%)	(87.2%)	(75.7%)
Female	N = 91	N = 17	N = 147
(%)	(27.2%)	(12.8%)	(24.3%)
Ethnicity	**Able**	**Disabled**	**Total**
Afro-American	N = 113	N = 104	N = 308
(%)	(35.5%)	(78.2%)	(52.6%)
Caucasian	N = 199	N = 25	N = 265
(%)	(62.6%)	(18.8%)	(45.3%)
Other Minorities	N = 6	N = 4	N = 10
(%)	(1.9%)	(3%)	(2.1%)

Note. For Sex and Ethnicity, Percentages Are By Column.

Table C reports available information on highest grade completed by members of the sample. This information was available for 565 of the 606 subjects. This same highest grade information was reported for 307 of the able readers and 126 of the disabled readers. Of the able readers, 66% had not completed twelfth grade, and the mean grade completed was approximately mid-tenth grade ($\bar{X}$ = 10.53, S = 1.88). Of the disabled readers, 93% had not completed high school, and the mean grade equivalent was a little over beginning ninth grade ($\bar{X}$ = 9.15, S = 2.05).

Table C

Highest Grade of School Completed

Grade	Able (N = 307)			Disabled (N = 126)			Total (N = 565)		
	Count		Cum %	Count		Cum %	Count		Cum %
3		0		(1)	1	(.8%)	(1)	1	(.2%)
4		0		(2)	1	(1.6%)	(2)	1	(.4%)
5		0		(7)	5	(5.6%)	(8)	6	(1.4%)
6	(5)	5	(1.6%)	(13)	6	(10.3%)	(20)	12	(3.5%)
7	(10)	5	(3.3%)	(20)	7	(15.9%)	(38)	18	(6.7%)
8	(38)	28	(12.4%)	(39)	19	(3.1%)	(108)	70	(19.0)
9	(94)	56	(30.6%)	(59)	20	(46.8%)	(207)	99	(37.7%)
10	(158)	64	(51.5%)	(94)	35	(74.6%)	(332)	125	(58.8%)
11	(204)	46	(66.4%)	(117)	23	(92.9%)	(426)	94	(75.4%)
12	(280)	76	(91.2%)	(126)	9	(100%)	(534)	108	(94.5%)
13	(287)	7	(93.5%)		0		(543)	9	(96.1%)
14	(300)	13	(97.7%)		0		(556)	13	(98.4%)
15	(302)	2	(98.4%)		0		(559)	3	(98.9%)
16	(307)	5	(100%)		0		(565)	6	(100.0%)

WAIS-R Characteristics of the Sample

The individual subtest results for able reading, disabled reading, and total groups are reported in Table D. Additionally, this table reports Bannatyne factor scores as well as traditional VIQ, PIQ, and FSIQ breakdowns. A series of t tests revealed all comparisons between able and disabled readers to be statistically significant ($p < .01$). Figure 1 and Figure 2 give a visual display of individual subtest and Bannatyne factor scores, respectively.

Table D

WAIS-R Results of Sample

Individual Subtest	Able (N = 335)		Disabled (N = 133)		Total (N = 606)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Information	8.54	2.56	5.30	1.33	7.32	2.59
Digit Span	9.37	2.46	6.56	2.13	8.36	2.59
Vocabulary	8.97	2.62	5.04	1.46	7.53	2.73
Arithmetic	8.99	2.48	5.97	1.27	7.85	2.46
Comprehension	9.06	2.63	5.53	1.84	7.71	2.79
Similarities	9.20	2.59	5.66	1.72	7.90	2.71
Picture Completion	9.61	2.56	7.15	2.29	8.69	2.66
Picture Arrangement	9.83	2.68	7.08	2.28	8.80	2.75
Block Design	9.74	2.69	7.29	1.82	8.65	2.65
Object Assembly	9.55	2.70	7.44	2.36	8.67	2.78
Digit Symbol	9.31	2.39	6.60	1.63	8.33	2.48
Bannatyne Category						
Spatial	28.90	6.36	21.88	5.16	26.01	6.72
Conceptual	27.23	6.92	16.24	4.12	23.13	7.47
Sequential	27.67	5.36	19.13	3.54	24.54	5.93
Acquired Knowledge	26.50	6.51	16.32	3.18	22.69	6.91
Intelligence Quotient						
Full Scale IQ	93.87	12.00	76.70	5.30	87.15	12.30
Verbal IQ	92.28	11.77	75.80	5.42	86.62	12.17
Performance IQ	96.28	12.41	80.53	8.34	90.07	12.89

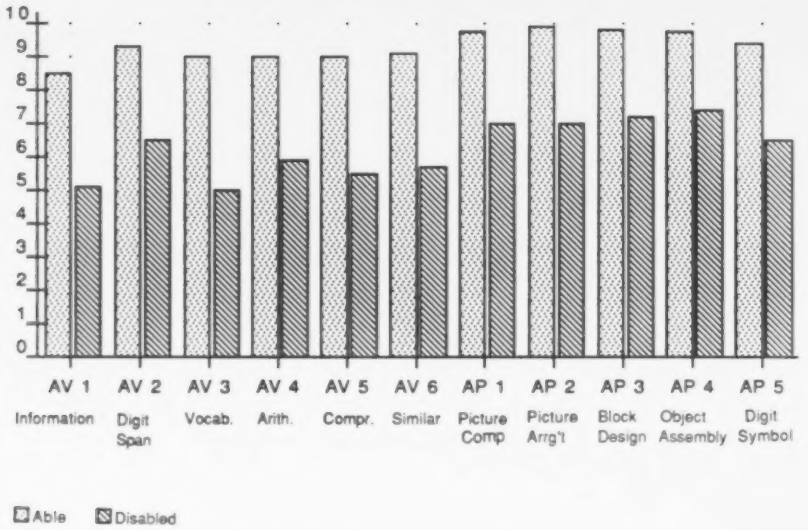
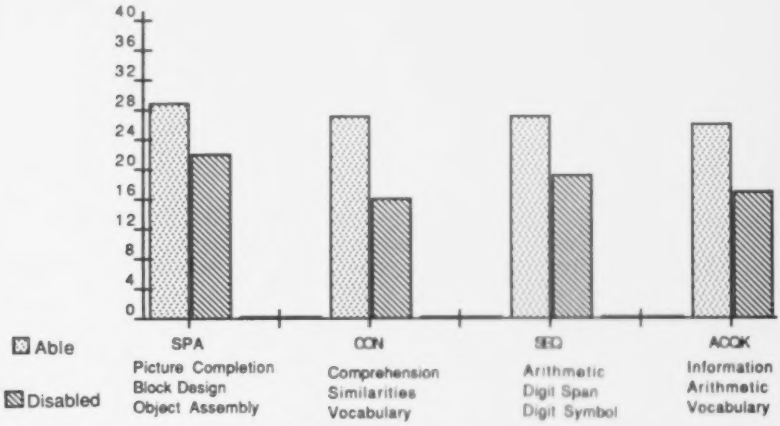


FIGURE 1. MEAN WAIS-R PERFORMANCES OF ABLE AND DISABLED READING GROUPS

FIGURE 2
MEAN BANNATYNE CATEGORY SCORES OF ABLE AND DISABLED READING GROUPS



It should be noted that the Bannatyne Acquired Knowledge category (Vocabulary, Information, and Arithmetic) was computed for this sample, and is included in Figure 2 and Tables C and D. However, this category was omitted from further analyses due to its redundancy with two of the other three Bannatyne factors.

Discriminant Analysis Results

The SPSS stepwise entry procedure was used in two discriminant analyses: in the first, the individual WAIS-R subtests and the social and educational variables were eligible for entry; in the second, the Bannatyne factor scores as well as the social and educational variables were made eligible.

In the first discriminant analysis, the Vocabulary, Digit Symbol, Digit Span, Picture Arrangement, Similarities, and Arithmetic subtests entered the function under the stepwise criteria. That function accounted for 47% of the variation between the two groups. It should be noted that social and educational variables did not enter into the function.

Table E

Summary of Results of Discriminant Analysis

with Individual Subtests Plus Social and Educational Variables

Step	Action (Entered)	Wilks' Lambda
1	Vocabulary	.633891
2	Digit Symbol	.583689
3	Digit Span	.557662
4	Picture Arrangement	.545018
5	Similarities	.536904
6	Arithmetic	.533183

Canonical Discriminant Functions

Function	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Wilks' Lambda	Chi Square	DF	Signif.
1	.87553	.6832401	.5331830	293.69	6	0

Classification Results

Action Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership 1	2
1	133	123	10
		(92.5%)	(7.5%)
2	335	51	284
		(15.2%)	(84.8%)

Note. Percent correctly classified was 87.08.

In the second discriminant analysis, only the Conceptual and Sequential Bannatyne factors entered the function; again, the social and educational information did not contribute to group differentiation. That function accounted for 46% of the variation in the two groups.

Table F

Summary of Discriminant Analysis with

Bannatyne Factors Plus Social and Educational Variables

Step	Action (Entered)	Wilks' Lambda
1	Conceptual	.613449
2	Sequential	.543139

Canonical Discriminant Functions

Function	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Wilks' Lambda	Chi Square	DR	Signif.
1	.84115	.6759146	.543139	283.93	2	0

Classificaiton Results

Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership 1	2
1	133	120	10
		(90.2%)	(9.8%)
2	335	58	277
		(17.3%)	(82.7%)

Note. Percent correrctly classified was 84.83. Acquired Knowledge was not made eligible for entry due to overlap with other three Bannatyne categories.

DISCUSSION

Striking differences were noted between able and disabled readers in all of the WAIS-R subtests. The disparity in individual subtests, logically, led to disparities in Verbal, Performance, and Full Scale IQ scores as well as in Bannatyne factor scores. Additionally, group differences were noted in ethnic background, highest grade of school, and (to a lesser extent) sex.

The social and educational variables, in particular, are not only complex and difficult to interpret but also extremely sensitive. The able readers were 37.4% minority, whereas the disabled readers were 81.2% minority. At issue, however, is the question as to why such differences continue to exist. One can only reasonably conjecture that achievements tests in general reflect a cultural barrier and that, in addition, there are inequities in the quality of education in the communities from which a disproportionate number of minorities are arrested and convicted. It is strongly suggested that these barriers have not been overcome by the educational opportunities available after incarceration. It is also possible that the particular effect of lengthy incarceration may have a further compounding influence on academic performance as measured by standardized tests. Observations by the clinicians during all the testing sessions indicated that the results on both the TABE and the WAIS-R were producing what they perceived to be consistent underestimates of overall academic and intellectual functioning.

It might also be concluded that able readers are likely to complete more formal schooling than disabled readers. Although both able and disabled readers were lagging behind national norms in terms of formal education, there were still statistically significant differences ($p < .01$) between the groups, as one would intuitively expect. Over 93% of the disabled readers had not completed high school--as opposed to 66% of the able readers--and the disabled readers' mean highest grade completed was nearly a year and a half below that of the able readers. What makes interpretation difficult here is a rather complex cause and effect proposition. The disabled readers were clearly the products of less quantity of formal education; but was an early exit from formal schooling necessarily the **result** of deficient reading? Was it the **cause** of deficient reading? The authors do not mean to imply any "causal" relationship regarding reading disability and lack of formal education. Certainly a relationship exits, but there are a number of other factors beyond reading problems which contribute to school drop-out.

Regarding WAIS-R differences in the groups, "intelligence" is, for the most part, a necessary correlate to the act of reading. Generally speaking, superior IQ scores predict superior readers. There are, however, numerous exceptions to this generalization. The WAIS-R does not measure innate intelligence. From the moment of birth, inherited capacity interacts with the environment, so that only certain aspects of the results of this interaction can be measured.

Summaries of studies of children's performance on the Wechsler tests have indicated two rather consistent findings: 1) disabled readers tended to score higher on the Performance Scale than on the Verbal Scale (e.g., Clarizio & Bernard, 1981; Henry & Wittman, 1981; Rugel, 1974; Ryckman & Elrod, 1983; Smith, Coleman, Dokecki & Davis, 1977), and 2) they tended to score poorly on five subtests: Information, Arithmetic, Digit Span, Digit Symbol (Coding in the WISC-R), and Vocabulary (e.g., Badian, 1981; Cordoni, O'Donnell, Ramaniah, Kurtz, & Rosenshein, 1981; Webster & Lafayette, 1980). Additionally, relative weaknesses were noted in the Bannatyne Sequential category (Digit Span, Arithmetic, Digit Symbol/Coding). Since the majority of studies examining the Wechsler tests and reading were ex post facto, the issue of cause and effect is still debatable. Were the poor readers inherently inadequate in certain aspects of "intelligence" (as tapped by the subtests on which they scored poorly), or had they failed to develop in these areas because of their lack of reading ability? An answer to this extremely complex question is not easily attained. It may, however, be instructive to examine the group profiles of these adults as they relate to previous findings concerning children.

Whereas previous studies of school-age children using the Wechsler Scales largely occurred when the subjects were in school and at least had access to approximately the same amount of school-influenced enrichment, the subjects in this sample had more variability in school background. For both able and disabled readers, lower school-influenced Verbal subtests may have resulted in lower Verbal IQ's. Schooling influence also apparently affected Bannatyne factor performance, for the Sequential category--consistently the weakest area for reading-disabled children--was higher than Conceptual for this sample. There are several possible explanations for the relative Sequential strength of the adults. The Sequential factor can have several meanings, including (but not limited to) freedom from distraction, ability to manipulate symbols, and sequencing ability (Kaufman, 1979). If indeed the Sequential subtests measure short-term memory or attention process, reports that the ability to sustain attention develops with age (Gale & Lynn, 1972) and that short-term memory is developmental in nature (Morency & Wepman, 1973) may account for the better showing by the adult poor readers as opposed to their younger counterparts. Concerning lack of schooling, this may have predisposed the poor readers toward an aversion for school-related tasks (or simply left them underprepared for such tasks), with the result that they made their poorest showings in the Conceptual and Acquired Knowledge categories.

A possible explanation for the poor showing of the adult underachieving readers on the Conceptual Bannatyne category relates to the inclusion of the Vocabulary and Similarities subtests in this factor. These factors are hgihly school-related, and the quantity of formal schooling of the subjects in this paper is consistent with the depressed Conceptual score. It should be noted, however, that the adequate readers also exhibited relatively low Conceptual scores.

In attempting to sort out the discriminant analysis results, one can only firmly conclude that WAIS-R data were powerful predictors of reading ability and disability as opposed to the social and educational predictors. Multi-collinearity of the WAIS-R information may have been a problem. Although the SPSS stepwise entry process curtails the entry of highly correlated predictors at each step, the issue of "how much is too much" is still unclear.

In conclusion, practitioners should remember that corroboration is always necessary, and the Wechsler profiles should be treated as only one part of a diagnostic picture. Success on IQ tests is related to success in certain aspects of intelligent behavior, including but not limited to academic achievement test results. Although complex relationships exist among the cognitive, social, and educational variables examined in this study, it can be firmly concluded only that TABE reading results were more accurately predicted by WAIS-R results than by social and educational factors, even though these same predictors contributed heavily to the WAIS-R results.

References

Badian, N. A. (1981). Recategorized WISC-R scores of disabled and adequate readers. **Journal of Educational Research, 75**(2), 109-113.

Bannatyne, A. (1968). diagnosing learning disabilities and writing rmedial prescriptions. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1**, 242-249.

Bannatyne, A. (1974). Diagnosis: A note on recategorization of the WISÇ scaled scores. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 7**, 272-274.

Bell, R., Conard, E., Gazze, B., Greenwood, S. C. Lutz, J. G., & Suppa, R. J. (1983). **The nature and prevalence of learning deficiencies among adult inmates.** Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice.

Bell, R., Conard, E., Laffey, T., Lutz, J. G., Miller, P. V., Simon, C., Stakelon, A., & Wilson, N. J. (1979). **Correctional education programs for inmates.** Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing

Office, A National Evaluation Program, Phase 1 Report, June.

Clarizio, H., & Bernard, R. (1981). Recategorized WISC-R scores of learning diabled children and differential diagnosis. **Psychology in the Schools, 18**, 5-12.

Cordoni, B. K., O'Donnell, J. P., Ramaniah, N. V., Kurtz, J., & Rosenshein, M. S. (1981). Wechsler adult intelligence score patterns for learning disabled young adults. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 14,** 404-407.

Dell'Apa, F. (1973). **Educational programs in adult correctional institutions: A survey.** Boulder, CO: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education.

Education Commission of the States Correctional Education Project (1976). **Correctional educations: A forgotten human service.** (Report No. 76). Denver, CO: Author.

Gale, A., & Lynn, R. A. (1972). A developmental study of attention. **British Journal of Educational Psychology, 42, 260-266.**

General Accounting Office, Report to the Congress of the United States (1980). **Community-based correctional program can do more to help offenders** (GGD-80-25). Washington, D.C.: U.S. GAO, February.

Henry, S. A., & Wittman, R. D. (1981). Diagnostic implications of Bannatyne's recategorized WISC-R scores for identifying learning disabled children. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 14,** 517-520.

Jencks, C. (1972). **Inequality: A reassessment of the effect of family and schooling in America.** New York: Harper & Row.

Kaufman, A. S. (1979). **Intelligent testing with the WISC-R.** New York: Wiley-Interscience.

Kaufman, A. S. (1981). The WISC-R and learning disabilities assessment: State of the art. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 14,** 520-526.

Kilty, T. K. (1977). **A study of the characteristics of reading programs in federal, state, and city-county penal institutions.** Kalamazoo, MI: (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 142 598).

Morency, A., & Wepman, J. M. (1973). Early perceptual ability and later school achievement **Elementary School Journal, 73,** 323-327.

Nie, H., Hull, C., Jenkins, J., Steinbrenner, K., & Bent, D. (1975). **Statistical Package for the Social Sciences** (2nd Ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

Reagan, M. V., Stoughton, D. M., Smith, T. E., & Davis, J. C. (1973). **School behind bars: A descriptive overview of correctional education in the American prison system.** Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Research Corporation, Policy Institute.

Rugel, R. P. (1974). WISC subtest scores of disabled readers: A review with respect to Bannatyne's recategorization. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 7,** 57-64.

Ryckman, D. B., & Elrod, G. F. (1983). Once is not enough. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 16**(2), 87-89.

Smith, M. D., Coleman, J. M., Dokecki, P. R., & Davis, E. D. (1977). Recategorized WISC-R scores of learning disabled children. **Journal of Learning Disabilities, 10,** 437-443.

Tiegs, E. W., & Clark, W. W. (1976). **Tests of Adult Basic Education: 1976 Edition.** Monterey, CA: CTB/McGraw-Hill.

Webster, R. E., & Lafayette, A. D. (1980). Distinguishing among three subgroups of handicapped students using Bannatyne's recategorization. **Journal of Educational Research,** 73, 237-240.

Wechsler, D. (1981). **Manual for the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised.** New York: Psychological Corporation.

Dr. Greenwood served on the research staff of Lehigh University which conducted the national study of "The Nature and Prevalence of Learning Deficiencies Among Adult Inmates" for the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice from 1981-1983. The data from that study form the basis for this paper.

Dr. Bell, who directed the previously mentioned study for the NIJ, is presently Chairperson of the Department of Counseling Psychology, School Psychology, and Special Education at Lehigh University.

PART 2

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES CORNER

COMPUTER LABS IN OHIO'S CORRECTIONAL PRERELEASE PROGRAM

Norman Rose, Ph.D.
Kurt Williams

Ohio's Correctional Prerelease Center received nearly every convicted felon, male and female, scheduled for release from Ohio prisons between January 1, 1985 and January 1, 1987. Eight thousand six hundred seventy seven (8,677) inmates participated in the Prerelease Program during this timeframe and two thousand thirty eight (2,038) or 23% were assigned to a computerized learning laboratory. This study examines the use of computerized learning laboratories in Ohio's Correctional Prerelease Program which is characterized by high turnover and short term involvement.

Education staff initially decided to emphasize functional skills (occupational knowledge, consumer economics, community resources, health, and government and law) rather than academic skills (computation, problem solving, writing, identification of facts and terms, and reading) in Ohio's Prerelease Program. Inmates were assigned to classes based upon the results of their performance on the Adult Performance Level (APL) test. Because the Prerelease Program was a job readiness program, the occupational knowledge section of the APL was given highest priority. Inmates who scored less than 80% on occupational knowledge were assigned to an appropriate class. Life skills, including consumer economics, community resources, government and law and health were given high priority for scheduling.

Inmates who entered Ohio's Prerelease Program were asked during an intake interview whether they preferred to attend a traditional class or to go into a computerized learning laboratory. They were informed that the computer labs were designed to teach the same functional skills being taught in the traditional classes, not computer programming. Inmates who chose computer labs were given a lab orientation and a set of assignments associated with an APL area on which they scored below 80%. After ten hours on task, they were given a post-test on the APL area in which they studied.

The following conclusions about the effectiveness of computers in Ohio's Prerelease Program were derived from data kept for two years by three computer laboratory instructors operating three spearate laboratories:

COMPUTERS ARE ESSENTIAL FOR MANAGING INFORMATION!

During the early stages of the Prerelease Program, fourteen instructors, two administrators and one secretary struggled with testing, assessing, and scheduling of 300-400 new inmates each month. An equal number of enrolled inmates had to be processed for release. Instructors spent a good deal of time counting the dots on the APL answer sheets and manually scheduling each inmate in appropriate classes.

A major benefit of the computer was the scoring of the APL Test. Inmates took the APL Test by recording their answers on a computer card that was run through a scanner. Instead of spending hours counting dots, instructors instantly received each inmate's total APL score, a percentage score for each area. With the aide of computers, instructors were able to rapidly schedule inmates into classes depending upon specific needs.

Computers also became useful to the Prerelease staff for compliing necessary performance reports. The funding source, Jobs Training Partnership Act (JTPA), required documentation that certain objectives were being met. For example, as a condition for funding, a certain percentage of inmates were to establish written career goals, write resumes, and complete the program. In order to document compliance with these goals, prerelease staff at first had to keep manual records and review inmate files on a monthly, quarterly, and yearly basis. Computers enabled instructors to keep inmate records on a data base and run reports whenever needed. Computers also enabled staff to sort out inmates for special programs. If, for example, a speaker from the Franklin County (Ohio) Parole Authority was scheduled, a

computer list of inmates form Franklin County could be easily produced.

In short, computers enabled prerelease staff to rapidly test, assess, and schedule inmates into programs specifically designed to meet their individual needs and to produce necessary report data. Computers enabled the staff to spend less time doing paperwork and more time teaching.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION IS NOT FOR EVERYONE!

During the two year period of this study, 2,038 Prerelease inmates (23%) were assigned to one of three computer labs. Only 792 (39%) of those assigned to computer labs were considered by their instructors to be successful completers of the program. In order to be considered a successful completer of the learning lab, an inmate had to fulfill these requirements:

1. Establish a career goal.
2. Write a resume.
3. Attend 80% of all scheduled classes.
4. Study for 10 hours on an assigned APL topic.
5. Take the APL pre-test and post-test.

The most difficult requirement for inmates to fulfill was the studying for 10 hours. The pre-test, the establishing of a career goal, and the resume writing were completed at the beginning of the program. Furthermore, inmates were not required to show any gain on their post-test scores. Essentially, all an inmate needed to do after the first few days in class was to spend 10 hours on task. Still, only 39% of the lab participants successfully completed the lab program.

There are many reasons for the low number of learning lab completers. Some inmates left early because they received furloughs (releaase before parole), or because they were placed in disciplinary control where they could not attend class. Others were serving definate sentences with little state sanction over them. A large number, however, either did not have sufficient attention spans to study for ten hours, or did not have the keyboard skills necessary to operate a computer.

When lab instructors recognized that there was a problem, they decided to screen applicants and to accept fewer students into the computer labs. Instructors in the traditional classrooms cooperated by agreeing to accept any inmate who appeared to be a classroom discipline problem. As a result, the percentage of successful completers in the computer labs increased dramatically during the second year. Table I below demonstrates this improvement:

TABLE I

A SUMMARY OF OHIO PRE-RELEASE INMATES ASSIGNED TO COMPUTER LABS AND A COMPARISON OF COMPLETERS TO NON-COMPLETERS

	1985	1986	2 YRS
TOTAL INMATES SERVED	4386	4291	8677
ASSIGNED TO COMPUTER LABS	1425 (32%)	613 (14%)	2038 (23%)
LAB COMPLETERS	406 (28%)	386 (63%)	792 (39%)
LAB NON-COMPLETERS	1019 (72%)	227 (37%)	1246 (61%)

The improvements shown in Table I illustrate the critical need for careful screening and individual attention in computer-assisted instruction. It would seem, therefore, that computer assisted instruction requires a strong screening component for learners since 63% completed the program the second year compared with 28% the first year.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION IS OF SIGNIFICANT BENEFIT TO SOME!

Table 2 shows the percentage of improvement for computer lab students on various areas of the APL Test:

TABLE 2

A SUMMARY OF APL GAINS FOR OHIO PRE-RELEASE INMATES WHO SUCCESSFULLY COMPLETED THE COMPUTER LAB PROGRAM

SUBJECT	NUMBER WHO STUDIED	AVERAGE APL GAIN
Occupational Knowledge	361	10.76%
Consumer Economics	174 (20%)	9.50%
Government And Law	128 (14%)	12.16%
Health	117 (13%)	10.93%
Community Resources	52 (6%)	10.99%
Problem Solving	6 (Less Than 1%)	20.17%
Writing	5 (Less Than 1%)	15.20%
Identification Of Facts/Terms	2 (Less Than 1%)	2.69%
Reading	2 (Less Than 1%)	20.00%
Total	886	

*The average APL gain for 886 pre/post tests was 10.93%
*Some completers studied and tested in more than one area

These figures indicate, for the few who successfully completed the computer lab program, computer-assisted instruction was of tremendous benefit. On the average, inmates gained nearly 11 percentage points on an APL test area with ten hours of computer-assisted instruction. These figures would be higher except that they include pre-test/post-test scores of inmates who regressed on the APL test after ten hours of study. Some inmates appear to have sabatoged the scores by going down as much as 60%-80%. While it is difficult to believe that computer-assisted instruction caused an inmate to lose knowledge, these researchers did not want to bias the results by eliminating some scores. It was not uncommon to see an inmate gain 20% on an APL area after only ten hours of study.

INSTRUCTORS ARE IMPORTANT!

While the average APL gain for ten hours of study was 10.93%, there were some variations attributable to the instructors. One instructor averaged 13.48% gain over a two year period, another averaged 12.27%, and a third averaged 9.55%. Significantly, the instructor who averaged 9.55% had one quarter during which students average a gain of 17%, and another quarter during which students only averaged a gain of 3.29%. These figures, along with the statistics showing greater gains in smaller classes (Table 1 where 14% were enrolled the second year compared to 32% the first year) point to the important role of the instructor in computer-assisted instruction.

There are many ways in which the instructor can be the critical element for success or failure in computer-assisted instruction. Instructors vary, for example, on the extent to which they supplement computer instruction with lectures, discussion, audio-visual, or other aides. An enthusiastic instructor effects students positively compared to one who is not enthusiastic. Computers appear to function best when used as one of many teaching aides. They are least effective when used as a substitute for the teacher.

SUMMARY

Computers are essential for testing, assessment, scheduling, and recored keeping in Ohio's Correctional Prerelease Program which is characterized by high turnover and short term involvement. Computers are also important educational tools for some inmate learners when appropriate screening and positive instructors are part of the program.

Computer-assisted instruction may require more individual attention than instruction in the traditional classroom. However, the experiences of many inmates in the traditional classroom have left them alienated from the learning process. One needs to see a hostile inmate turn cooperative, an alienated learner become enthusiastic, or a defeated learner gain confidence in order to appreciate the value of computer-assisted instruction. These positive results make correctional education rewarding for both students and staff.

About the Authors:

Norman Rose holds a Master's Degree in applied sociology from Kent State University and a Ph.D. in industrial sociology from Ohio State University. He served as Computer Lab Coordinator at Ohio's Correctional Prerelease Center for more than two years. He was selected as 1986 Ohio Teacher of the Year by the Correctional Education Association and was recently elected Treasurer of the Correctional Education Association of Ohio.

Kurt Williams served as Project Director and Prerelease Coordinator for the Ohio Correctional Prerelease Program Orient, Ohio. He is presently completing a Doctorate in Adult Education and Criminal Justice at Ohio State University.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN LAND USE; AN EXPLORATION OF VALUES IN THE PRISON LAB SCIENCE CLASSROOM

James A. Brey, Ph.D.

INTRODUCTION

Offering lab science courses in geography and geology within the correctional setting provides the instructor with unique problems and unique opportunities.

Among the problems are the physical setting of the prison classroom which often is less than ideal, the lack of sizable quantities of materials (maps, airphotos, etc.), large class size (often forty per lab session), security concerns which prohibit the introduction of certain materials and eliminate the field trip as an opportunity for learning and finally, the general fear of certain earth science tools which inmate students share with their counterparts on the streets.

Included among the opportunities are the general level of maturity among inmate students, the fact that the students work extremely well in small groups of five to ten, and the fact that inmates generally respond well to projects which allow them significant input in design and the freedom to make decisions within the requirements of the project. Another major opportunity is found in the significant need, noted by Duguid (1987, 1986), Barker (1986), O'Malley (1986), Homant (1984) and others, for inmate students to deal with ethical and moral issues and choices in a democracy-based, decision-making format which will hopefully be transferable to everyday life upon release.

The "Pinellas County Project" is a laboratory exercise specifically developed for two University of Wisconsin Centers courses (Geography 130, Human Impact on the Environment) taught in the prisons through the Postsecondary ReEntry Education Program (PREP). PREP provides freshman-sophomore college courses leading to an Associate of Arts or Science degree to persons incarcerated in the prison system of the State of Wisconsin. While it was designed to overcome the above mentioned problems and take advantage of the opportunities offered by the correctional setting, the project also met a more basic need: no specific laboratory curriculum has been designated for the two courses mentioned and lab manuals and other support materials were generally unavailable commercially. Thus the lab has the potential for wider use in the lab courses mentioned and could be adapted to a variety of other courses as well.

LAB TOPICS AND GOALS

Despite the lack of specific curricular guidelines for the two courses, a general sense of what ought to be learned in labs associated with these courses would be apparent to anyone trained in the applied aspects of the two disciplines.

Traditionally earth science labs require the development of skill in the use of topographic maps and air photos. Applied environmental science requires skill in the use of the soil survey, a variety of demographic and economic statistics and facility with cartographic methods so that results may be represented in map form. Since applied environmental science frequently deals with human response to natural hazards and the cummulative effects of land use, these topics also must be represented. Finally, since many land use decisions in our society must be approved by planning and zoning commissions, familiarity with the process of land and water use planning seemed to be a useful addition to the laboratory curriculum. Most of these topics are covered in the texts used in the two courses which further assists with the integration of the lab portion of the class.

CAPTURING STUDENT INTEREST

Successful instruction in the setting often requires that each task attempted be approached from a unique angle which enhances student interest, and in the lab setting participation.

In planning this laboratory, a strategy was devised to make the project unique enough to readily capture student interest and thus provide the motivation to embark upon what would be a lengthy period (fifteen weeks) of dealing with concepts and tools which might initially seem to be intimidating or overwhelming. This uniqueness was provided by assigning the students the broad task of developing and ultimately defending a land use plan which would guide the rebuilding of Pinellas County, Florida, which was, according to the scenario provided, ravaged by a major (Class V) hurricane.

Pinellas County seemed to be an ideal choice for a number of reasons. First, it is a real place which exists under the threat of hurricane destruction not unlike that described in the scenario. Second, it is a rapidly growing urban area possessing a wide variety of environmental and social ills which the students can address. Third, there is considerable data and other information about the county which is readily available for free or at low cost. Finally, the idea of redesigning a subtropical "paradise" with all its amenities while locked in the cold throes of a Wisconsin winter holds a certain appeal all its own.

Another facet of the project which provides uniqueness was the lack of restriction in the planning process. Students were required to work in self-selected groups denoted as planning commissions, divide the labor involved in the project, share materials, and be creative in their redesign. The only conditions placed on the planning committees were as follows. First, the design plan had to ensure a degree of safety from future hurricanes. Second, the proposed land uses had to be broadly compatible with the soils capabilities, surficial geology, shoreline geomorphology, and topography of the sites in question. Third, a general environmental awareness and ecological ethic was to be incorporated in the plan. Fourth, the plan would have to meet the economic and societal needs of the Pinellas population, which would, according to the scenario, be returning to the county after reconstruction. Finally, students would have to undertake independent research of those innovations they wished to include in the plan. Other than meeting these guidelines (required in the scenario before payments would be made on Federal flood insurance) the students would have complete freedom of choice as to how to rebuild.

Of course, to meet the basic requirements the students would have to learn how to use those tools and information sources which would define what was safe or unsafe, what was environmentally sound or unsound. In other words they would have to learn the methods and information that ought to be learned in courses of this type.

LAB STRUCTURE

This lab was devised to meet the pressing need to provide a meaningful lab experience in courses where such an experience was ill defined. Thus it was possible to use essentially the entire semester on the project and organize lab time to fit the special needs of the project as well as the overall goals of the courses. Basically the lab can be divided into three specific portions: "mini-labs" which provided instruction in methods and tool use, the land use planning portion which involved the actual design by the students of a land use plan, and finally a presentation portion during which the students presented the plans developed.

The actual nature of this organization -- as well as the finer details of the lab itself -- evolved over time. In the first course utilizing the lab, we began with individual two-hour labs devoted to learning the tools -- topographic maps, soil survey, information about hurricanes and barrier island geomorphology, etc. -- without the benefit of the overall scenario or the motivation of the opportunities for creativity offered by the acutal planning exercise. The materials and information used during this tool learning phase were, however, centered on Pinellas County. In subsequent courses, the scenario and overall plans for the laboratory were revealed at the outset which provided greater meaning and incentive to work diligently on

the "mini-labs" containing instruction on tool use and practice with the actual lab materials. The subsequent courses also expanded the materials and methods to be mastered in the "mini-labs" to include air photos, economic and demographic statistics, meterologic data about hurricanes, and cartographic design.

Information on human response to natural hazards, the land use planning process, demographics, and a variety of environmental-ecological topics were adequately covered in the lecture portion of the course.

After the materials and methods were mastered in the "mini-labs" -- about halfway through the course -- the students were turned loose on their "major" task, the redesign of Pinellas County.

The land use planning portion of the lab maintained the same lab small groups initially formed during the "mini-lab" portion. By the time the planning actually began, students were aclimated to their groups and generally worked well with one another. Each group had earlier elected leaders and spokespersons and had generally developed a sense of how labor would be divided and what, if any, specialized talent was available within the group. There also appeared to be an appreciation of the pacing which would be necessary for the successful accomplishment of the long-term task. Most groups also had a general idea of what kinds of innovations they wanted to incorporate in their plan. Although much was in place at the outset of the planning portion, a variety of adjustments in all of the aforementioned areas was apparent throughout the planning process.

Materials for the planning portion were kept on reserve in the PREP library during the more recent offerings of the lab and workspace and supervised study areas were generally available at all times during the school day so that individuals, subcommittees, or even entire groups could work on the project outside of the two hour per week lab periods. This was a substantial improvement over the initial course which provided very limited access to materials and very little opportunity for students to work together on the project outside of class. More recent versions also benefitted from the expansion of reference material available in the institution libraries and streamlined access to other materials through inter-library loan.

The culmination of the project involved prepared presentations by each group on their "plan" for Pinellas County. In the earlier versions, each group had twenty minutes within which to present. More recently, a fifty minute presentation period provided for more elaborate presentations and a substantive question and answer period during which the presenters were grilled on the details of their plan by members of the other groups. Each group was also required to submit a written report. After all groups had presented, each class member ranked the top three plans. Points were then associated with this ranking. The plan with the most points would be the one "adopted."

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The success of the Pinellas County Land Use Planning Project laboratory may be measured according to three criterion. First, how well did students learn the material appropriate to a laboratory experience in the specific courses? Second, how did this particular laboratory structure ameliorate the problems and take advantage of the opportunities provided by the correctional setting? Third, what additional benefits were derived from the project?

Measurement of learning may be approached in several ways. First, overall final grade distributions of the courses incorporating the Pinellas Project may be compared with the distributions resulting in other lab science courses offered by the same instructor in the prison setting but using more traditional lab methods and organization. The traditional labs involve smaller groups of about five students working through specific exercises contained in a laboratory manual. Such labs offer little opportunity for creativity but rather focus directly on skill acquisition. Students meet in their lab sections during a regularly scheduled two hour period each week.

Grade distributions which compare two classes involving the Pinellas County Project and four other lab science geography and geology courses not including the Project are presented below.

COURSE	LAB	FINAL GRADES				
		A	B	C	D	F
Geog 123	(traditional)	18%	27%	36%	6%	12%
Geog 124	(traditional)	24%	21%	27%	10%	17%
Geol 101	(traditional)	29%	12%	29%	18%	18%
Geol 101	(traditional)	13%	24%	29%	18%	16%
Geol 169	(Pinellas)	40%	13%	33%	13%	0%
Geol 169	(Pinellas)	40%	32%	20%	5%	3%

It is quite apparent that the students participating in the Pinellas County Project performed better overall than their counterparts in classes taking the more traditional lab approach as measured by final grades. This includes performance on major exams (75% of the grade) as well as lab exams which cover materials exclusive to the lab skills to be learned (25% of the grade).

Another measure of learning is provided by the self-reporting of satisfaction with the course determined through a standardized student evaluation of instruction which is administered near the end of each semester. Students participating in courses which included the Pinellas County Land Use Planning Project Lab were on the average much more inclined to be satisfied with the lab portion of the course than comparable students taking traditional lab science courses. Some of the comments provided on the evaluations also support the contention that the greater amount of freedom and the ability to create were key components of the satisfaction with the Pinellas Project. One group leader commented, "The experience was more interesting, challenging and productive than was expected by group members. Much terrain was covered which made the experience more valuable than the usual day-to-day educational fare of merely reading, taking notes, and memorizing new, but perhaps uninteresting information. The overall result was a problem-solving experience that demanded cooperative learning in a situation where the need existed for both interdependence and independence." (Campbell, 1987).

Finally, it should be mentioned that student research undertaken as a part of the project and the greater student involvement in using applied earth science skills yielded benefits to learning that transcend objective measurement. It is clear that in order to present the "best" land use plan, students did far more work, learned far more information and acquired greater proficiency in skill areas than students in more traditional lab courses. Futhermore, by including skills not traditionally taught (for example cartographic and statistical methods) the students came away from an introductory course with the mastery of several skills commonly learned in upperlevel courses.

SUCCESS IN SOLVING LAB MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS

As indicated earlier, success may also be measured in terms of how the lab ameliorated problems and took advantage of opportunities offered by the correctional setting. Traditional labs, because they involve the entire class in the same exercise of skill acquisition at the same time present problems of space to work and materials to work with. The Pinellas County Project eliminated these difficulties to a great extent, particularly during the actual planning stage. Students were required to share materials in a format that

made it less likely that each planning committee would be working with the same materials at the same time. The task of working with topographic maps and air photo sets is a case in point. Because of the size of the county, each group could be working on the same task but with a different section of the land area eliminating the need for multiple copies. Group A might be mapping flood hazard zones in the northwestern part of the county using the maps pertaining to that area while groups B, C, D and E would be accomplishing the same task for other areas. While the entire county would eventually have to be assessed for flood hazard by each group no group could possibly accomplish the goal except in parts. Because topographic maps and air photos are expensive and usually in short supply there is a very real advantage to the shared use approach as described above. Other materials, such as soil surveys, hurricane information and some of the statistical data which were not as easily used in this puzzel-fitting approach were readily copied and distributed. This is also true of the specific exercises included in the mini-labs.

Work space was less of a problem with the Pinellas County Project because of the division of labor involved. Not all groups would work at tasks with large space requirements at the same time and many of the space-consumptive tasks (such as creating large maps to be used during the presentations) were carried out by only portions of each group. The ability of students to work on their projects in tutor-supervised study areas outside of the regularly scheduled classtime also helped.

Difficulties with large class size were also eliminated by using the "planning group" as the standard unit of class organization. While the groups were self-selected, seldom was any group deficient in either talent and leadership. Students possessing these important qualities were important in guiding each group much as an instructor would and in many cases such peer leadership was probably more effective in getting the more recalcitrant students involved with the tasks which needed to be accomplished. The instructor's role was one of overseeing group efforts in a general way while relieved of the burden of dealing with individual details which would be better solved by the groups themselves.

Peer led groups also diminished some of the fear students commonly have of maps, air photos, tables of statistics and the like. It seemed easier for students to admit to difficulty within their groups and seek needed help than it was for students in the traditional lab setting. Often the problem to be solved was a minor one and could easily be tackled without the instructor's direct involvement. The format invoking shared effort also made it less likely for a student to feign understanding of a concept. Less than adequate understanding or proficiency would hurt the group effort and the groups were diligent in constantly reassessing their collective abilities and correcting any lacking on the part of individual

members. For larger problems or difficulties that the groups could not themselves solve, it was easier for the group to approach the instructor collectively with the problem and seek assistance. No single individual would be required to admit difficulty with a concept or method and such shared difficulties were corrected quickly and directly without the need to employ the various maneuvers developed over the years which allow students to save face and retain that veneer of self-assuredness so important in the corrections classroom.

The lab was also successful in that its realism in dealing with real world kinds of problems in a realistic problem-solving format did more for direct understanding of concepts and hands-on work with methods and tools than many field sessions could. Indeed many field trips, because of time and cost limitations, are very artificial experiences of short duration and dubious retention value. They are also almost always tied to what might be seen or done in relatively close proximity to the site of classes and thus must eschew the more intriguing problems beyond practical geopgraphical limits. While field experiences are of value in many situations the lack of such experiences was not a major difficulty in the courses incorporating the Pinellas County Project.

ADDITIONAL BENEFITS

While few correctional educators would loudly proclaim any expertise in the direct rehabilitation of offenders and many would be satisfied with the simple "contribution to program" provided by their efforts, it is the secret desire of all of us to make the difference in preparing our students for life beyond the institution. In many respects the Pinellas County Project seems to hold a certain promise in that regard as well.

First, the project fulfills what Duguid has termed "education for individual development" (Duguid, 1987). Duguid states that successful university instruction is an exercise in accumulating and using living skills" defined as following instructions, exercising individual initiative, ingesting complex written and verbal information, organizing data and impressions, forming opinions, looking for connections which may be hidden, or obtuse, framing literate responses to questions and assignments, developing the ability to communicate, being able to argue a point in a convincing and civil manner and performing under pressure. While not specifically designed to do all of these things, the Pinellas County Project has developed in a manner which would allow students considerable experience with such living skills.

Of even greater benefit is the fact that the Project, in order to perform its function, must integrate such skill acquisition with the mastery of a substantive, practically useful body of information contained in the earth science disciplines. While such "living skills" may be gained in the discussion of a literary work or the successful completion of a research paper, the Pinellas County experience is less obtuse and holds fast to the basic realities of the land upon which it is based. There is less opportunity to stray into unproductive rambling and speculation when the task at hand is anchored in the reality of scientific fact and method. The Project is thus a more disciplined venue for forays into the vagueries of human nature and more accurately portrays the solution of real life problems likely to confront the inmate student upon realease.

The group format also contributes significantly by "democratization" (to use Duguid's term) of the educational experience. This format "forces students to assume a significant level of responsibility for the welfare and administration" of their lab group. The students must learn to work together, share labor, solve problems collectively and bow to the will of the majority in order to complete the project. Duguid puts it this way, "It is in this realm of limited self-government that the notions of reason, common sense, compromise, empathy, causation, and ethics which were dealt with intellectually in the classroom are dealt with politically." While Duguid speaks of these qualities resulting from a broader form of "self-government" than is the case in the lab course, the beneficial results are much the same.

Finally, the Pinellas County Project allowed students to grapple with moral and ethical questions whose answers needed to be acceptible to the group as a whole. This led to more in-depth inquiry and the consideration of a variety of viewpoints, some of them conflicting. To quote Campbell, "There was much debate and wrangling over population placement, the effect of various types of industries, and various political, racial and social factors involved. The fact that an argument could arise over a place hundreds of miles to the south and belonging to nobody in the group, must be considered quite an achievement." It is an even greater achievement that all the land use plans submitted exhibited a degree of environmental and social sensitivity seldom exhibited by students individually.

CONCLUSIONS

The Pinellas County Land Use Planning Project fulfilled some basic needs by providing a lab science curriculum for a course where no lab materials were commercially available. Furthermore, it offered solutions to particular problems imposed by the prison setting. Finally, it offered an opportunity to give students practice with "living skills" and the solution of ethical questions in a realistic group-oriented enviroment. It did all this while providing a sound lab science experience and an opportunity for students to undertake creative inquiry. To quote Larry Campbell, "The lab prompted many questions. The chairman questioned each man about his subject area, the group as a whole asked questions of each other and everyone quizzed the instructor during his frequent stops." "The sessions showed the

students how to investigate, make inquires, to think things through to a greater extent, to ask, 'What if?' To ponder the variables of a situation - and to find interest in the factors of a problem in need of solution. Our group asked questions like: Could you create a better situation with the factors you've found? What is this soil good for? What is its worst use? What should the residential racial breakdown be? What about the power sources and facility placement? What about waste disposal facilities? The questions were many, and some of them complex and without sure or viable answers proved that thought was the most, valuable asset a student brought into that classroom."

REFERENCES CITED

Barker, Elizabeth, "The Liberal Arts in the Correctional Setting: 'Education Befitting Free Men' -- For Those Who Presently Are Not Free," presentation during the Correctional Education Association 41st International Conference, July, 1986, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Campbell, Larry, and Brey, James, "The Pinellas County Land Use Planning Project; An Innovative Modular Lab for Use in Corrections and Adult Education," presentation during the University of Wisconsin System Conference "Teaching Behind Bars; A Model For Adult Education," March, 1987, Madison, Wisconsin.

Duguid, Stephen, **University Prison Education in British Columbia**, Vancouver: Simon Fraser University, 1987. "The Humanities and Prison Education" in **Making Connections II: Humanities and the Criminal Justice System**, Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Centers, 1986.

O'Malley, Karena, "Talking Through Walls: Student Exchange in a Maximum Security Prison," **The Journal of Correctional Education**, Volume 37, No. 2, June 1986.

Homant, Robert, "On the Role of Values in Correctional Education," **The Journal of Correctional Education**,. Volume 35, No. 1, March 1984.

About the Author:

Dr. James A. Brey is Associate Director and Lecturer in Geography and Geology with the University of Wisconsin Centers Postsecondary ReEntry Education Program at Kettle Moraine, Taycheedah and Waupun Correctional Institutions.

PEER TUTORING: IT MAKES A DIFFERENCE IN A JUVENILE DETENTION CENTER SCHOOL

Mrs. Betty W. Farrar

Faced with the task of providing educational programs to students who often are "turned off" to education, who may have roamed the streets for hours, days, or weeks without adult supervision or academic involvement, who often are in great need for confirmation of self-worth and academic potential, educators in juvenile correctional settings may provide youth with an enriching alternative through peer tutoring.

AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Peer tutoring is, at its basic level, children teaching other children. The term "peer tutoring" is used in educational literature to describe situations in which a student provides instructional assistance/guidance to another student.

Peer tutoring is not a new concept. Children have been helping and teaching each other for as long as people have banded together into social units. Traditions of students teaching their peer or younger children stretch back into history many centuries, including Quintilian of the First Century AD who wrote in his **Institutio Oratoria** of younger children learning their lessons from older children, the Jesuits' Decurian system at the College of Lisbon in the 1500's, the English monitorial system of the 1700's and the factory-model schools of the Industrial Revolution. The literature in anthropology confirms that most societies have expected transmission of information and skills from older to younger children (Levine, 1986). In America, early settlers relied on their more mature children handling many homemaking and caretaking chores and teaching those tasks to younger siblings. When schooling became possible on a community level, children attended multi-grade classrooms. With one teacher to provide the instruction, older and more able students often helped teach their younger, less able peers. In its early educational forms, peer tutoring was a means of giving individual attention to children in a multi-grade setting and a way to relieve an overburdened teacher (Ehley, 1980).

The concept of peer tutoring did not revive again until the 1960's, and was precipitated then by an impending teacher shortage. Educators noticed that peer tutoring might serve not only to alleviate the burden of the classroom teacher but also possibly to encourage talented students to want to become teachers. Also during the 1960's emphasis was placed on peer tutoring for the disadvantaged student (Levine, 1986).

A multitude of cross-age teaching programs emerged in the 1960's and 70's as educators renewed their interest in the tutorial concept. Despite a wide variety of goals, methods, and outcomes, a common thread surfaced which surprised and delighted the authors of these programs: Not only did the child receiving tutoring respond and grow, the tutoring experience made a significant impact on the older, more mature student.

> OBSERVABLE EVIDENCE: stimulating the tutor's learning, encouraging from tutors,...aiding low-achieving older children, encouraging future teachers, and providing classroom assistants.
>
> HYPOTHETICAL EVIDENCE: giving confidence to tutors, giving older children the opportunity to play an adult role, and attitude change, including, in one sutdy, a reduction of prejudice (Paolitto, 1976).

Ellson et al (1965) observed the "therapeutic" effect of peer tutoring, how students in the tutoring context often displayed abilities not demonstrated in the classroom. He noted that changes observed in tutoring frequently extended into the regular classroom. At the very least, he observed that students who experienced success in learning by tutoring will feel more confident about their ability to learn.

Whatever the approach, the actual experiences of those involved in peer tutoring as well as the limited research of the last two decades give strong evidence of its value.

Current interest in peer tutoring includes recognition of the potential contribution the program can have on the school climate, instructional patterns, and teachers' roles. Also motivating the interest of educators in peer tutoring are such trends/mandates as mainstreaming handicapped students, protecting individual students' rights, and correcting potentially discriminatory assignment patterns and/or groupings that tend to segregate (or resegregate) racial groups. The resulting heterogeneous class groupings present enormous challenges to classroom teachers and administrators as they seek to meet individual needs.

The Carnegie Report, **A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century** pictures the future as active engagement, requiring critical thinking abilities, and emphasizing for all students a foundation of knowledge with shared common culture enhanced by an attitude of life-long learning. "The school of the future must allow for individual instruction, for flexible time schedules that permit each student to learn what he needs to learn in the time it takes him to do it" (Levine, 1986).

Peer tutoring fits into that vision of academic excellence. It is available to schools with little associated cost and has potential for enhancing the teaching/learning process.

A PEER TUTORING PROGRAM IN A DETENTION CENTER SCHOOL

Each year some two thousand students are served one or more times at the DCS (Detention Center School), during the regular school year and summer session. They range widely in ability and in age (from 11 to 18 years). They stay from overnight to over three months, with an average stay of 13 days. On a typical day, 105-110 students attend DCS; they are enrolled in grades 6 through 12 in their home schools. Many have serious socio-emotional, as well as learning problems. Most have had negative school experiences. All are in crisis, awaiting court hearings and/or other placement.

Providing productive educational experiences for this extremely heterogeneous and transient student body is truly a challenge. Students are grouped for instruction with others of similar ability (as assessed at entry). The school day is organized into nine forty-minute periods, including lunch. In addition to English, Reading, Mathematics, Science, History, Street Law, Health, Guidance and Gym, classes are provided in several enrichment areas -- Survival Skills, Substance Abuse Education, Art and Typing.

Small classes make it possible for teachers to provide individual attention to students. The Juvenile Court Volunteer Coordinator provides adult-volunteers (college students through retirees) who come one or two days (or half-days) a week to assist the students. For the typical DCS student, maximal individual attention is required to make his/her indefinite stay as educationally productive as possible.

During the 1984-1985 school year, a peer tutoring program was piloted to assess its effectiveness in promoting students' progress in academic and other areas. Carefully selected, more mature and academically able students gave individual help in basic reading and/or mathematics to the younger and/or more academically disabled. Some improvement in basic skills was documented for students tutored. Other equally important benefits were observed, for both tutor and tutee. Both evidenced improved self-esteem, through being identified in an institutional setting as a special person capable of giving, or deserving of receiving special attention. Students being tutored were reassured that learning was possible, and their tutors developed a sense of responsibility for promoting another's learning. In the informal peer-tutoring relationship, social skills were enhanced and empathy, rather than ridicule, was promoted.

Experience with the limited trial period of peer tutoring at the Detention Center School indicated that this process provides a unique supplement to instruction. A proposal to expand and ultimately "institutionalize" the peer tutoring was developed and submitted to a local foundation, the Martha Holden Jennings Foundation, for consideration. Funding was approved for the 1985-86 school year, making possible the creation of a paid coordinator position for the program and the purchase of carefully selected materials and supplies.

Now in its second year, peer tutoring at the Detention Center School involves several steps. These steps must be carried out continuously throughout the year, because of the ever-changing student population:

1) **Identification of prospective tutees** (a target group) and areas in which they could benefit from tutorial assistance. This program focuses on those with reading levels at or below 5th grade level, those 13 years old and under.

2) **Identification of prospective tutors** who, because of greater maturity and/or more advanced learning, as well as suitable personal characteristics, could advantageously work with prospective tutees. This program allows students to fill out applications for an honors class. At its team meeting, teachers discuss the applicants and accept or reject, giving reasons. The judges of those who are accepted receive letters telling of the honor!

3) **Orientation of new tutors.** Through the honors class, the coordinator arranges orientation including how the program works and its philosophy, how to work the computer, how to select appropriate reading materials, how to maintain records and document adequately, and how to approach and work with tutees. The honors class is limited to 12 students who rotate tutoring responsibilities while following a full schedule of classes.

4) **Assignment/Location/Coordination of tutors and their tutees** with appropriate task definition and materials to carry out the responsibilities.

5) **Assessment of tutors' performance and tutees' progress** with appropriate documentation and record-keeping procedures. The Coordinator monitors all tutoring sessions, observes student interaction, discusses the session with each tutor at the conclusion Individual progress cards are kept on file, and colorful charts display specifics of accomplishment: number of books read, skill mastered.

Peer tutors serve as important role models in the Detention Center School and perform an important educational/social task. In the first year of the grant, more than 200 students were helped by almost 140 tutors. While long-term results are difficult to measure in such a transient setting, the teachers have noticed a definite improvement in the school climate (fewer discipline problems) and a change in many students' attitudes toward school.

SOME GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATORS PLANNING A PEER TUTORING PROGRAM 129

The school attempting to initiate a peer tutoring program is immediately confronted with a series of decisions. In general, several key considerations need to be taken into account:

1. Goals of the peer tutoring program in the specific setting proposed. (Determine for what purpose the tutorial program is planned, what categories of academic and/or social development are most appropriately addressed by tutoring. Set behavioral and instructional objectives.)

2. Needs (supplies, equipment, staff, space) inherent in setting up the program. (Determine what available supplies/staff might be utilized, what locations offer potential. Consider possible problems with students' "traveling" to and from proposed locations and with adequate monitoring of tutorial sites.)

3. Interrelationship between regular school schedule (classes/staff) and tutorial program. Determine how, when, why students will be "pulled out" for tutoring, what procedure will be followed to inform student and classroom teacher. Work out a procedure for teacher input into tutees' academic needs and tutorial assignments.)

4. Selection and training of appropriate tutors. (Determine criteria for selection, and a mechanism/procedure for the selection process. Keep overall goals in focus as selection of tutors and tutees begins. The amount and nature of training will vary with the realities of the setting, the schedule constraints, and the space available).

An effective training component will include at least these steps for the tutor:

- Introducing himself/herself to the tutee and putting him/her at ease.
- clarifying the prescribed task for the tutee.
- using positive responses and avoiding "put down" language.
- selecting and using appropriate materials, with specific guidelines.
- providing tangible rewards when appropriate.
- evaluating the session, recording data and documenting progress.

Peer tutoring offers an appropriate, creative educational option in specialized settings, such as juvenile corrections institutions. It makes use of valuable human resources and enriches the total educational experience of those who participate.

REFERENCES

Cohen, P. A., Kulik, J. A., and Kulik, C.L.C. "Educational Outcomes of Tutoring: A Meta-analysis of Findings," **American Educational Research Journal**, 1982, 19(2), 237-248

Ehley, Steward W. and Larsen, Stephen C. **Peer Tutoring for Individualized Instruction** Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1980.

Ellson, D. G., Barber, L., Engle, T. L., and Kampwerth, L., "Programmed Tutoring: A Teaching Aid and Research Tool," **Reading Research Quarterly**, 1965, 1 (1).

Heden, D. P. **Students as Teachers: A Tool for Improving School Climate and Productivity,** a paper prepared for the Carnegie Task Force on the Teaching Profession, 1986.

Kane, Bruce J. and Alley, Gorden R. "A Peer-Tutored Instructional Management Program in Computational Mathematics for Incarcerated, Learning Disabled Juvenile Delinquents," **Journal of Learning Disabilities**, 1980, 4 (3), 39-42

Levine, Marsha "Docemur Docendo (He Who Teaches, Learns), **American Educator**, 1986, 10(3), 22-25ff.

Martha Holden Jennings Foundation, "Peer Tutoring: Meeting Everyone's Needs," **Pro Excellentia**, 1986, 7.

Paolitto, Diana, "The Effect of Cross Age Tutoring on Adolescence: An Inquiry into Theoretical Assumptions," **Review of Educational Research**, 1976, 46(2), 215-237.

Slavin, Robert, "Learning Together," **American Educator,** 1986, 10(2), 6-13.

About the Author:

Mrs. Betty W. Farrar is head teacher at the Juvenile Detention Center School, Cuyahoga County Juvenile Court, Cleveland, Ohio.

A FIVE YEAR COMPARISON OF APL LIFECOPING SKILLS TEST RESULTS AT LEBANON CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

Donald DeBald

CLASSES:
A teacher and one classroom was needed to conduct classes. The teaching schedule consisted of six one-hour class periods (Mon-Fri) during the school years 1982 thru 1986 at Lebanon Correctional Institution in Lebanon, Ohio.

PRE-TESTING METHODOLOGY:
Inmates were assigned to one of the six classes of Adult Basic Education Lifecoping Skills, after scoring a grade level of at least 4.0 thru 6/0 on the California Test of Basic Education (C.A.T.B.E.). Upon entry, each student was pre-tested with the 40 question APL Adult Survey Form AS-1 (Fry readability level of approx. 5th grade). The criterion of success was a score at level 2 or 3 in each of the five Knowledge Content Areas. During a five year peiod 1982 thru 1986 the number of inmates (ages 19 years to 23 years of age) tested was 1038.

PROCEDURE:
APL research defines functional literacy as the ability of an adult to apply skills to several major knowledge areas which are important to functional literacy, such as, the communication skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), computation, problem solving, and interpersonal relations. Thses skills are applied in everyday life situations, which are categorized into broad "Knowledge Content Areas" called occupational knowledge, consumer economics, health, community resources, and government and law.

The APL project has developed a general index of literacy which classifies adults into one of three categories:

APL 1 or (L-1) - below average: indicates a strong need for instruction in knowledge areas.

APL 2 or (L-2) - average: indicates some need for instruction in knowledge areas.

APL 3 or (L-3) - above average: probably no need for further instruction in knowledge areas.

The pre-tests pinpointed deficient knowledge areas and weak skills in each student. The subject areas the student scored at level 1 in were the areas given to them in class assignments.

MODE OF INSTRUCTION AND MATERIALS:
After needs assessments were completed, students were given individualized class-room assignments to overcome deficient objectives.

Print-outs and tests were used which were teacher made or taken from a variety of Life Skills texts. For general classroom studies, a multi-level series by McGraw-Hill (1980) entitled **Solving Life Problems**, with three levels of texts for each general knowledge area were used. Based on the Fry readability formula, it was determined that the lowest level text ranged from 4th to 6th grade in readability; Book 2 ranged from 6th to 8th grade; Book 3 ranged from 9th to 12th grade. Films, filmstrips, and class discussions were used as supplementary information. These aids added flexibility to the program and prolonged the students interest in a sometime boring or disinterested subject. From completed assignments the proficiency of each student was checked to determine whether or not the student should proceed to the next objective based on a graded course of study and a curriculum guide for the life skills classes. Students were given new objectives based on formal or informed test results.

POST-TESTING METHODOLOGY:
The same 1038 students, who completed the APL Adult Survey (AS-1) pre-test were tested with the 100 questions APL assessment test (AA-1) as a post-test (Fry readability level of approx. 6th to low 7th grade level).

The criterion of success was a score at level 2 or 3 in each of the five Knowledge Content Areas. The students who did not achieve a score at level 2 or 3 in each of the five Knowledge Content Areas were re-enrolled in the A.B.E. Life Skills class for the second term.

Final scores of those students who achieved levels of 2 or 3 in each Knowledge Content Area were considered proficient and their scores are entered on their school transcripts.

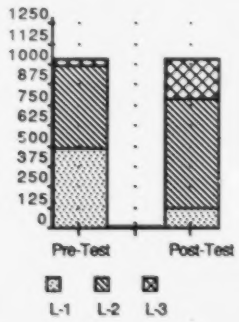
RESULTS:
Over a 5 year period 1982 thru 1986, the APL Adult Survey (AS-1) was administered as a pre-test to 1038 inmates enrolled in A.B.E. Life Skills classes and the APL Adult Assessment (AA-1) was administered as a post test to the same 1038 inmates at the end of their respective school term (approx. 52 days).

The following is a summary of results of pre and post testing showing total inmates a teach competency level.

PRE-TEST (AS-1 Form)			POST-TEST (AA-1 Form)		
	Students Tested			Students Tested	
Level - 1 (L-1)	438	47%	Level - 1 (L-1)	120	10%
Level - 2 (L-2)	506	49%	Level - 2 (L-2)	675	70%
Level - 3 (L-3)	49	4%	Level - 3 (L-3)	233	20%
	1038			1038	

I believe the results demonstrate the efficacy of the APL Life Skills program with inmates at Lebanon Correctional Institution.

APL PERSPECTIVE 1982-86



A FIVE YEAR COMPARISON OF APL TEST SCORES

REFERENCES

Adult Performance Level Project, Adult Functional Competency: A Summary. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas at Austin, March 1975.

APL Assessment and APL Survey. Iowa City, Iowa: The American College Testing Program, 1979.

Shelton, E., "The Implementation of a Life Coping Skills Program Within a Correctional Setting", **Journal of Correctional Education,** June 1985.

Solving Life Problems. New York, N.Y.: McGraw - Hill Book Company, 1980.

WHAT IS THE CEA?

The Correctional Education Association, or CEA, is affiliated with the American Correctional Association as an international professional organization serving the educational program needs within the field of Corrections.

WHO ARE THE MEMBERS OF CEA?

The membership is a diversified composite of educational administrators, academic and vocational educators, correctional officers, childcare counselors, clinicians, and other interested personnel at local, county, state and federal facilities.

WHAT IS THE SCOPE OF THE ORGANIZATION?

There are eight regions throughout the United States and Canada. The membership of nearly 2500 represents these regions as well as several European countries and Australia.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE ORGANIZATION?

Through the association's publications, workshops and the annual International Conference, CEA strives to broaden professional horizons and equip each member with the support to provide relevant educational programs for adult and juvenile offenders. The organization stresses importance of interaction between the disciplines and services within the institutions and agencies, in the attempt to improve the delivery of total interest services.

WHAT CAN CEA DO?

As an organization representing both regions and individual members throughout the world, it can actively advocate for legislation for funding more and better programs, and provide a forum for the interaction and exchange of ideas.

BENEFITS:

Professional organization representing professionals in similar fields with similar interests and problems to yours.

Publications to keep you abreast of current events in the field as well as to report significant research by persons and organizations through the quarterly Journal of Correctional Education and the bi-monthly national newsletter.

Annual Conferences are held for the international organizations at various locales throughout each of the eight regions as well as regional conferences and workshops.

Regional Affiliation is afforded the prospective member as well as membership in the international organization. New members are automatically enrolled on the regional membership rosters and receive all correspondence generated within their region as well as all national benefits.